

jim leftwich

visual poems ongoing research 2016 -vol. 2

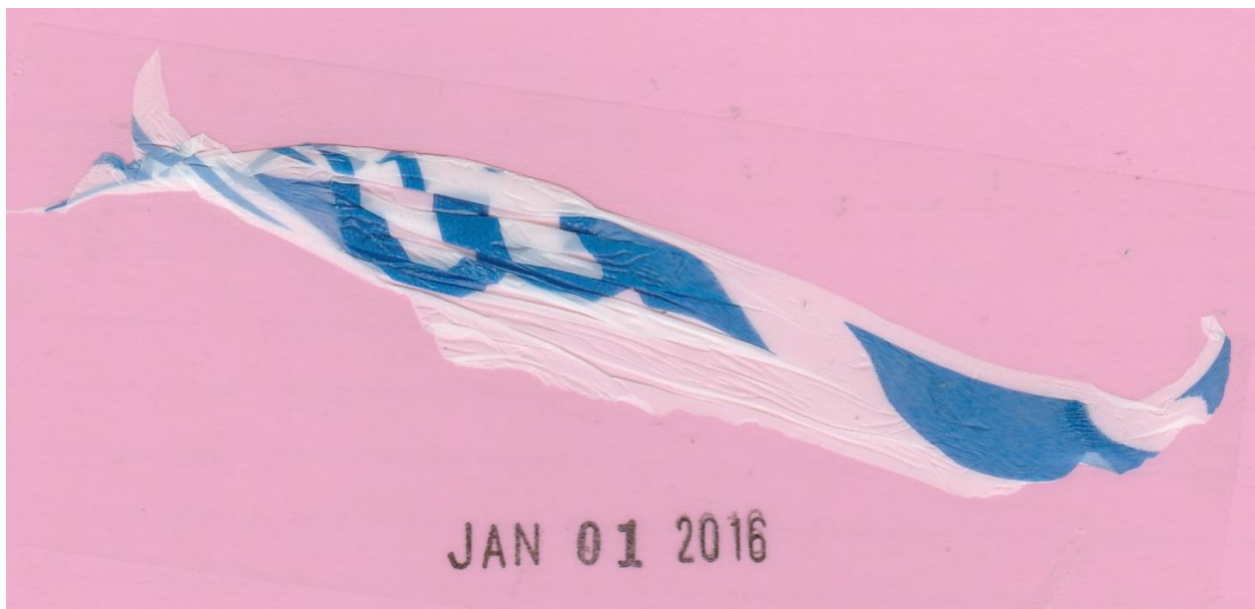
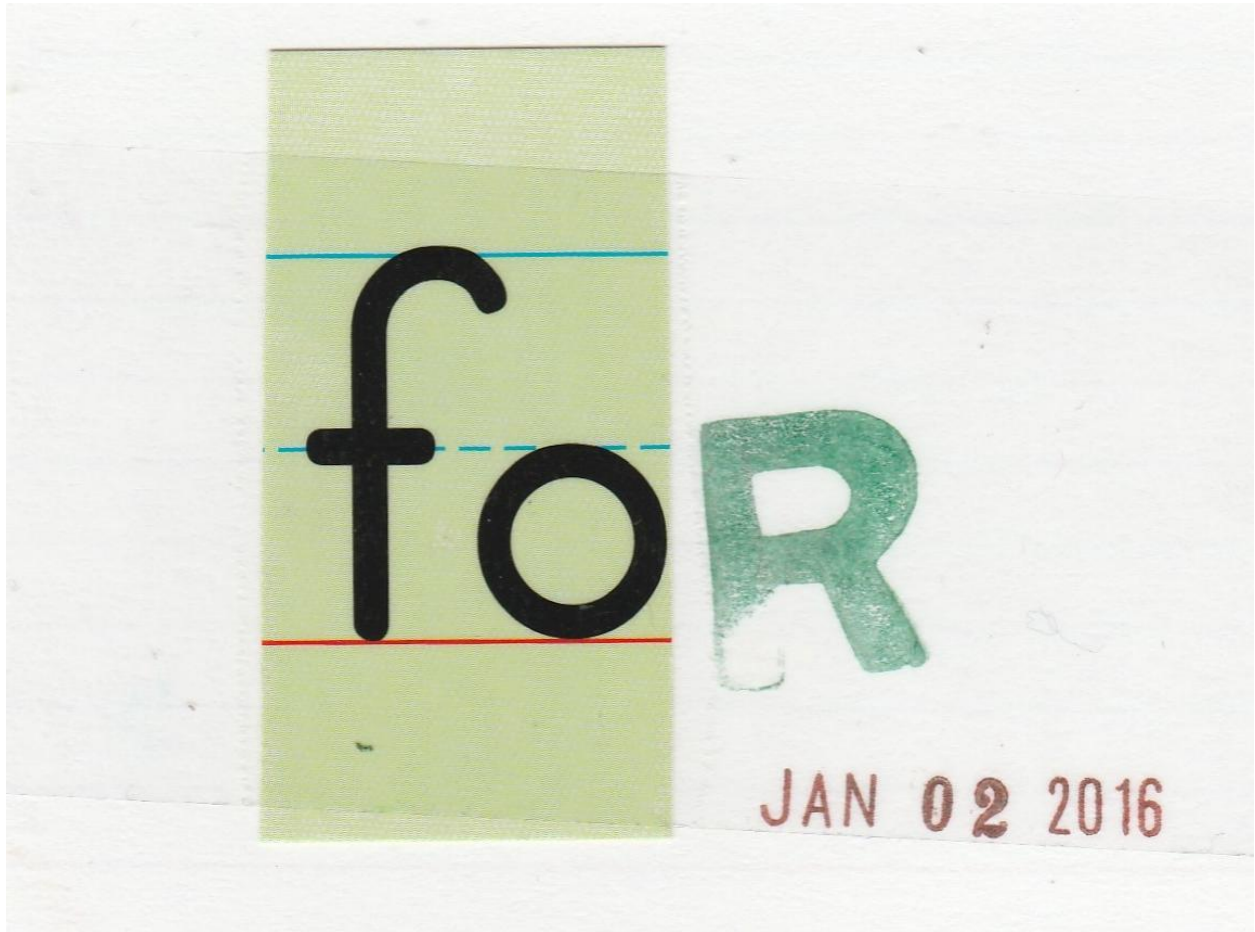


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information, such as gambling.^[3]

In 1908, Egon Conrad published a monograph titled *Der Beginn einer Schizophrenie. Versuch einer Gestaltanalyse des Wahns* ("The onset of schizophrenia: an attempt to form an analysis of delusion"),^[1] in which he described in German the initial phase of schizophrenia. He coined the word "Apophanie" to characterize the onset of delusional thinking in psychosis. Conrad's theories on the genesis of schizophrenia have since been partially, yet inconclusively, confirmed in psychiatric literature when tested against empirical findings.^[2]

Conrad's monograph was translated into English as "apophenia" (from the Greek ἀποφαινω [apo-phainō] + *phainein* [to show]) to reflect the fact that a schizophrenic initially experiences delusion as revelation.^[5]

In contrast to an epiphany, an apophany (i.e., an instance of apophenia) does not provide insight into the nature of reality or its interconnectedness but is a "process of repetitively and monotonously experiencing abstract meanings in the outer surrounding environment".^[6] That condition can actually exist in schizoid, schizotypic, and paranoid - "being observed, spoken about, the object of eavesdropping, followed by strangers".^[6] Thus the English term "apophenia" has a somewhat different meaning than that which Conrad defined when he coined the term "Apophänie".

"Apophany" should not be confused with "epiphany".

Related neologisms

"Patternicity"

In 2008, Michael Shermer coined the word "patternicity", defining it as "the tendency to find meaningful patterns in meaningless noise".^{[7][8]}

"Agenticity"

In *The Believing Brain* (2011), Shermer wrote that humans have "the tendency to impose patterns with meaning, intention, and agency", which he called "agenticity".^[9]

"Randomania"

In 2011, parapsychologist David Luke proposed that apophenia is one end of a spectrum and that the opposite behaviour (attributing to chance what are apparently patterned or related data) can be called "randomania". He asserted that dream pre-cognition is real and that randomania is the reason why some people dismiss it.^[10]

Examples

Randomania

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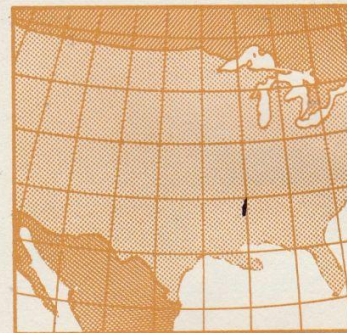
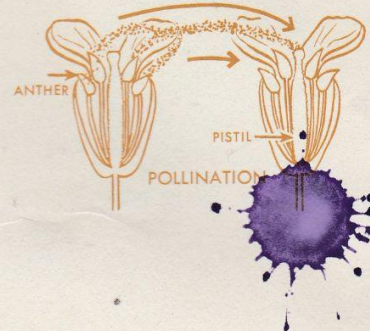
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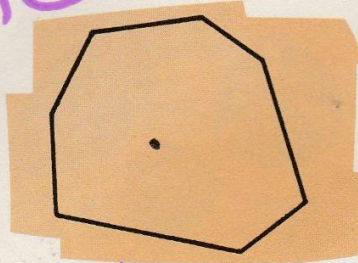
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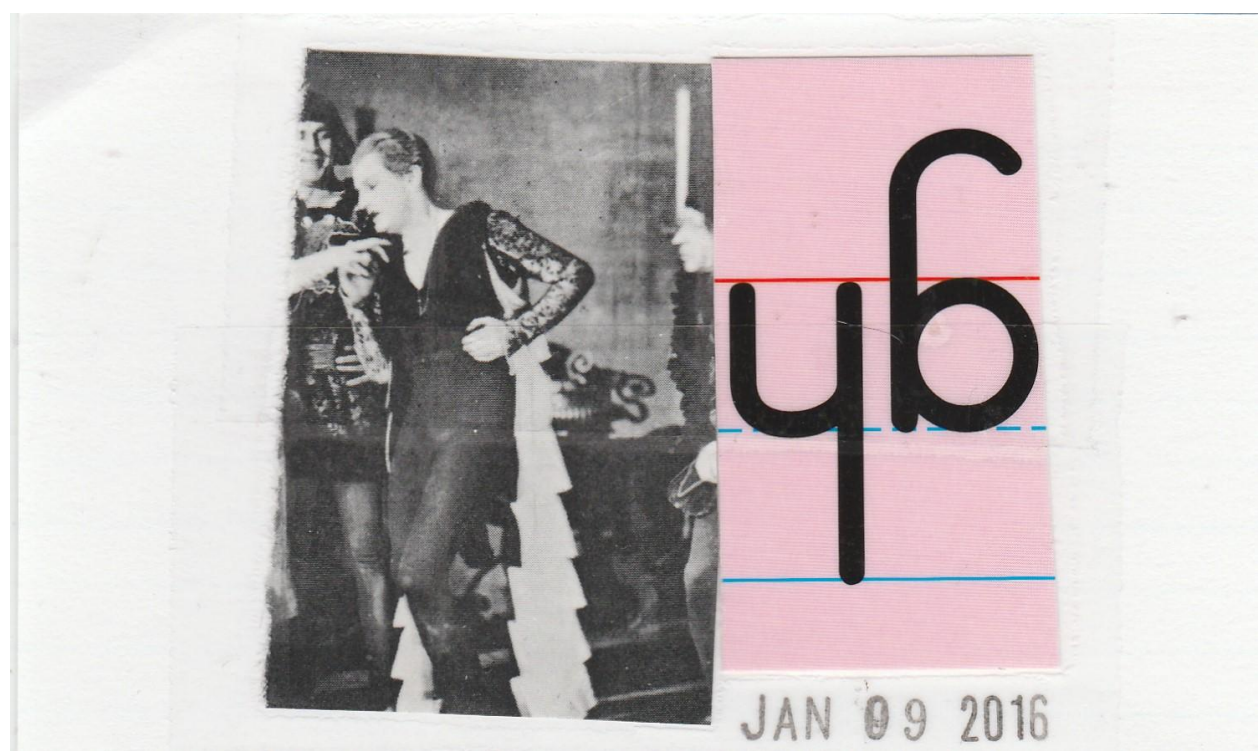
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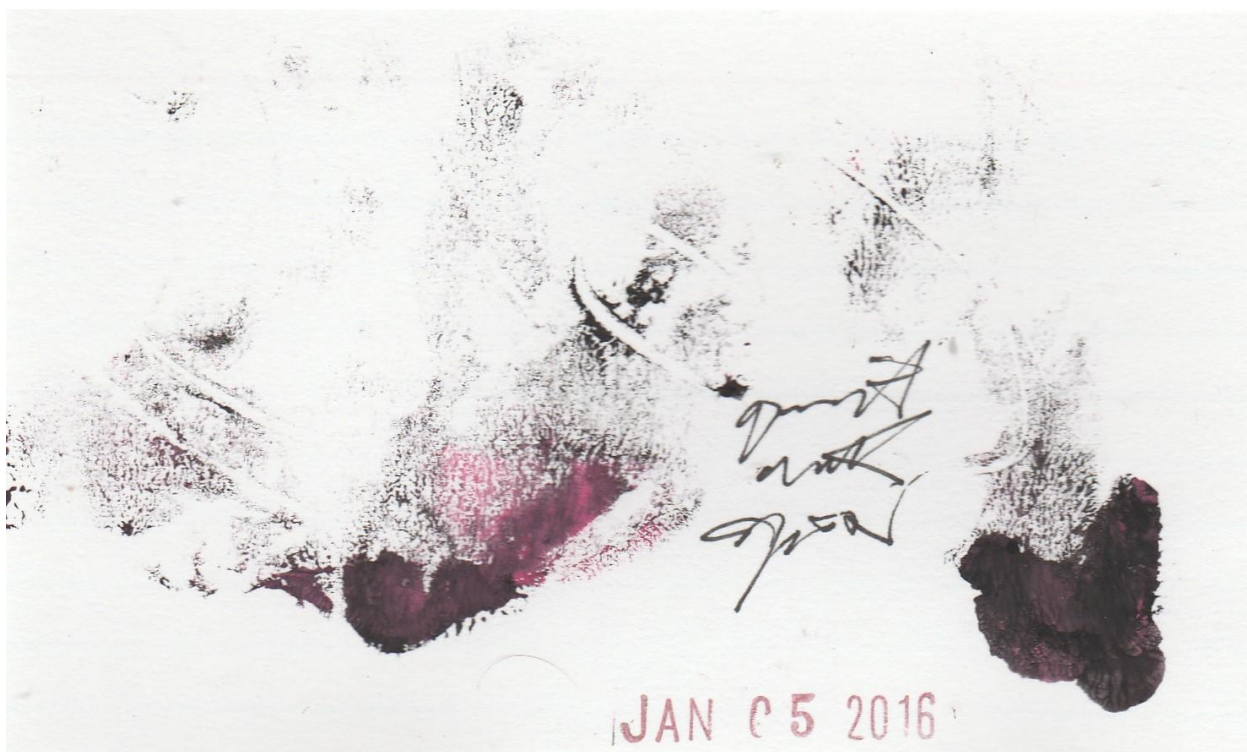
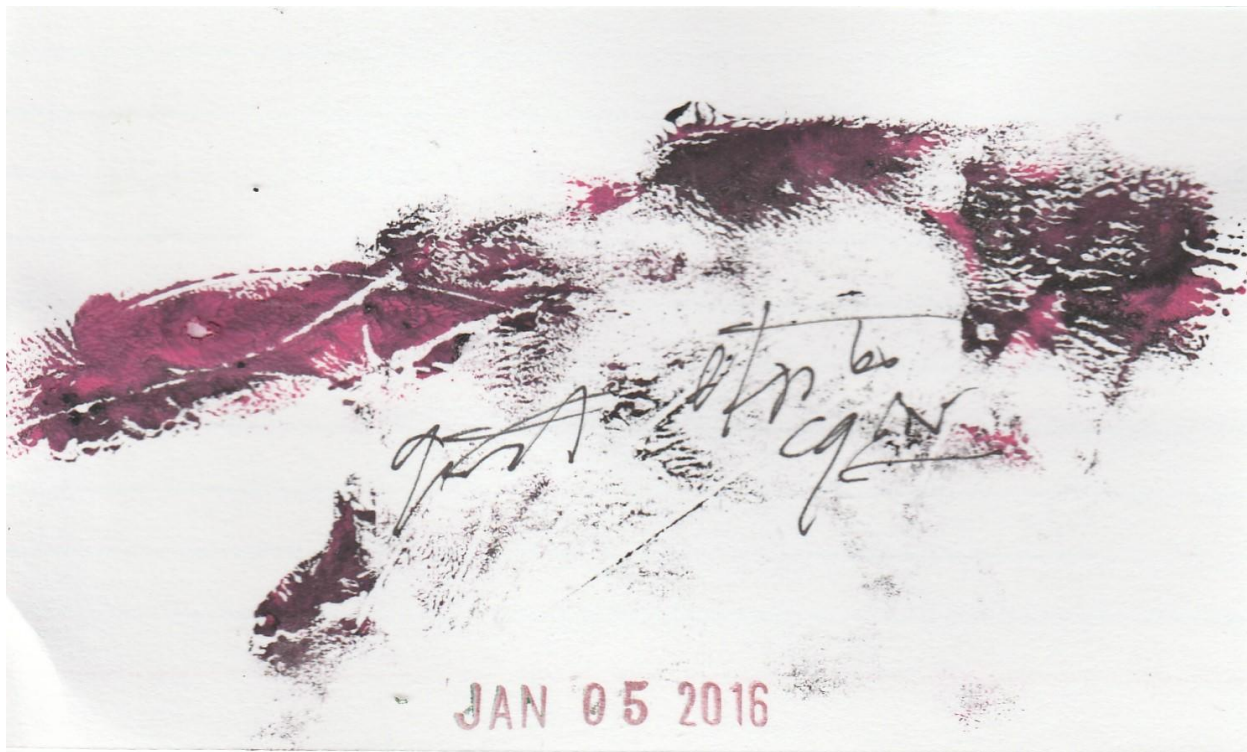
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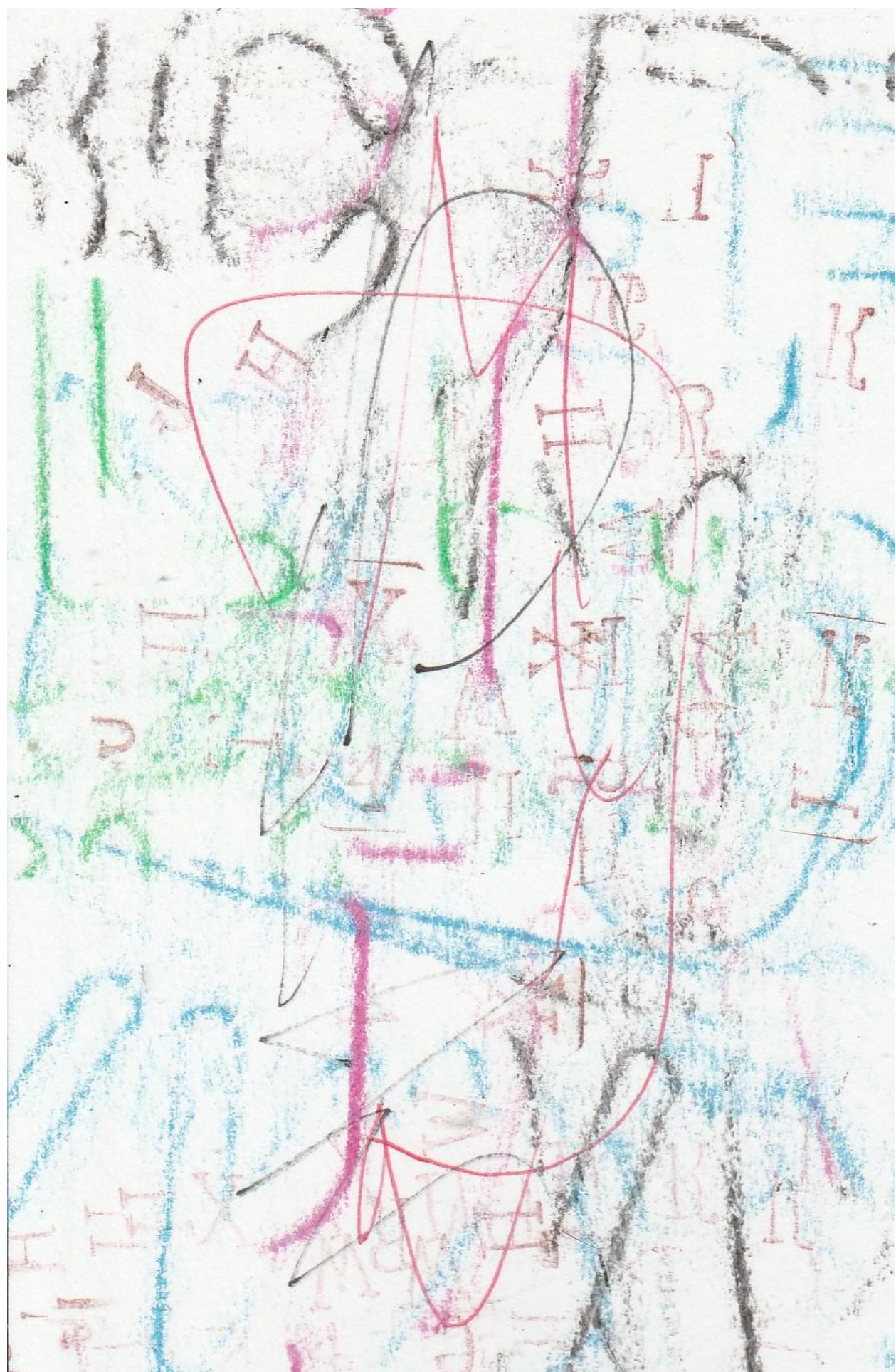
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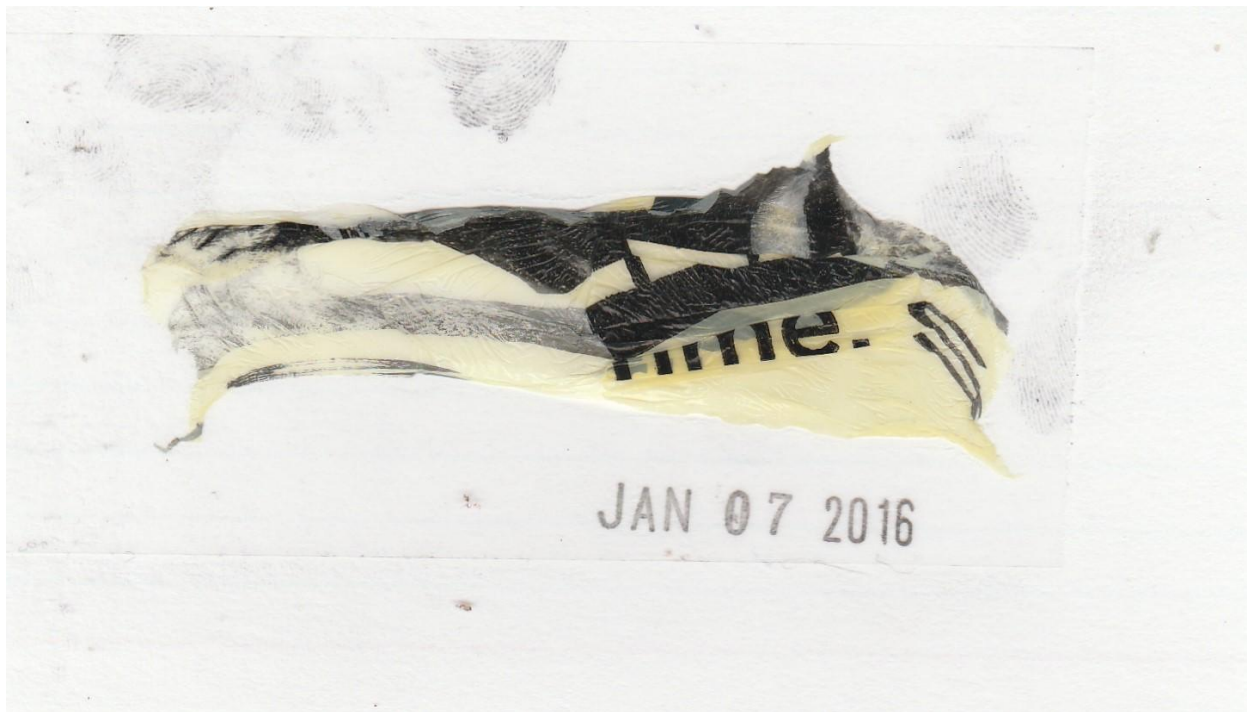
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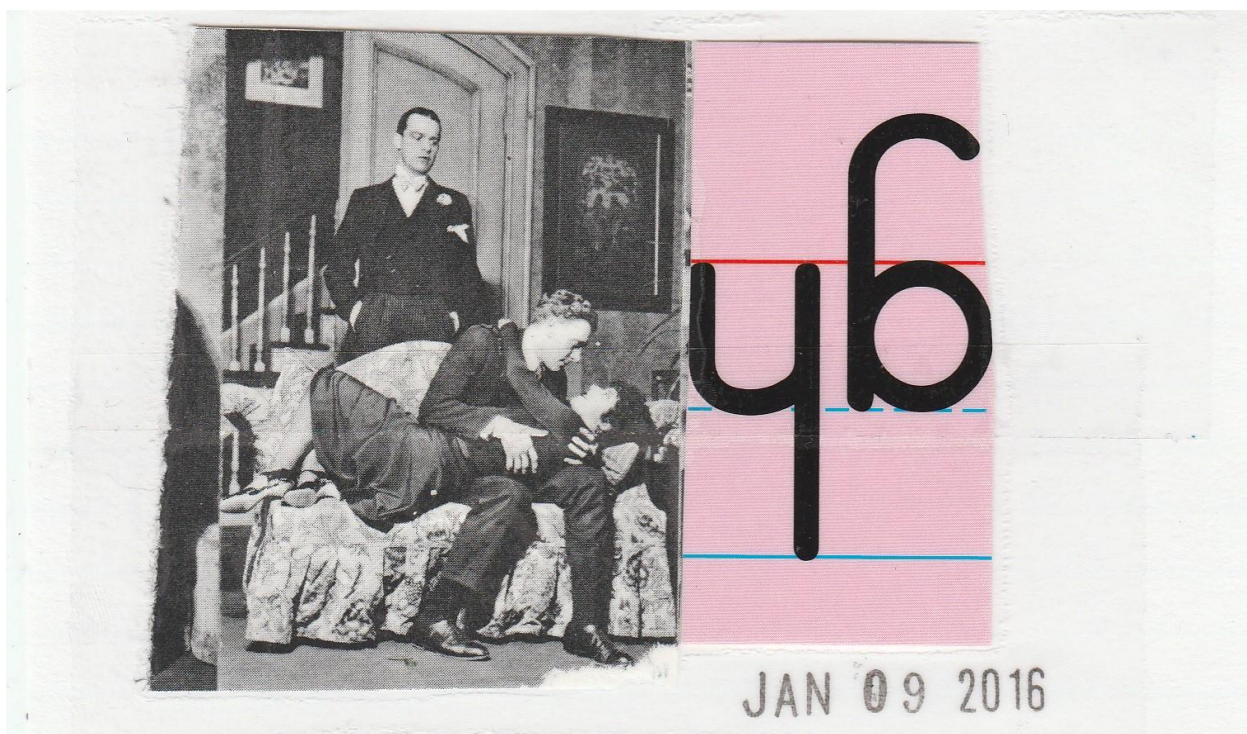
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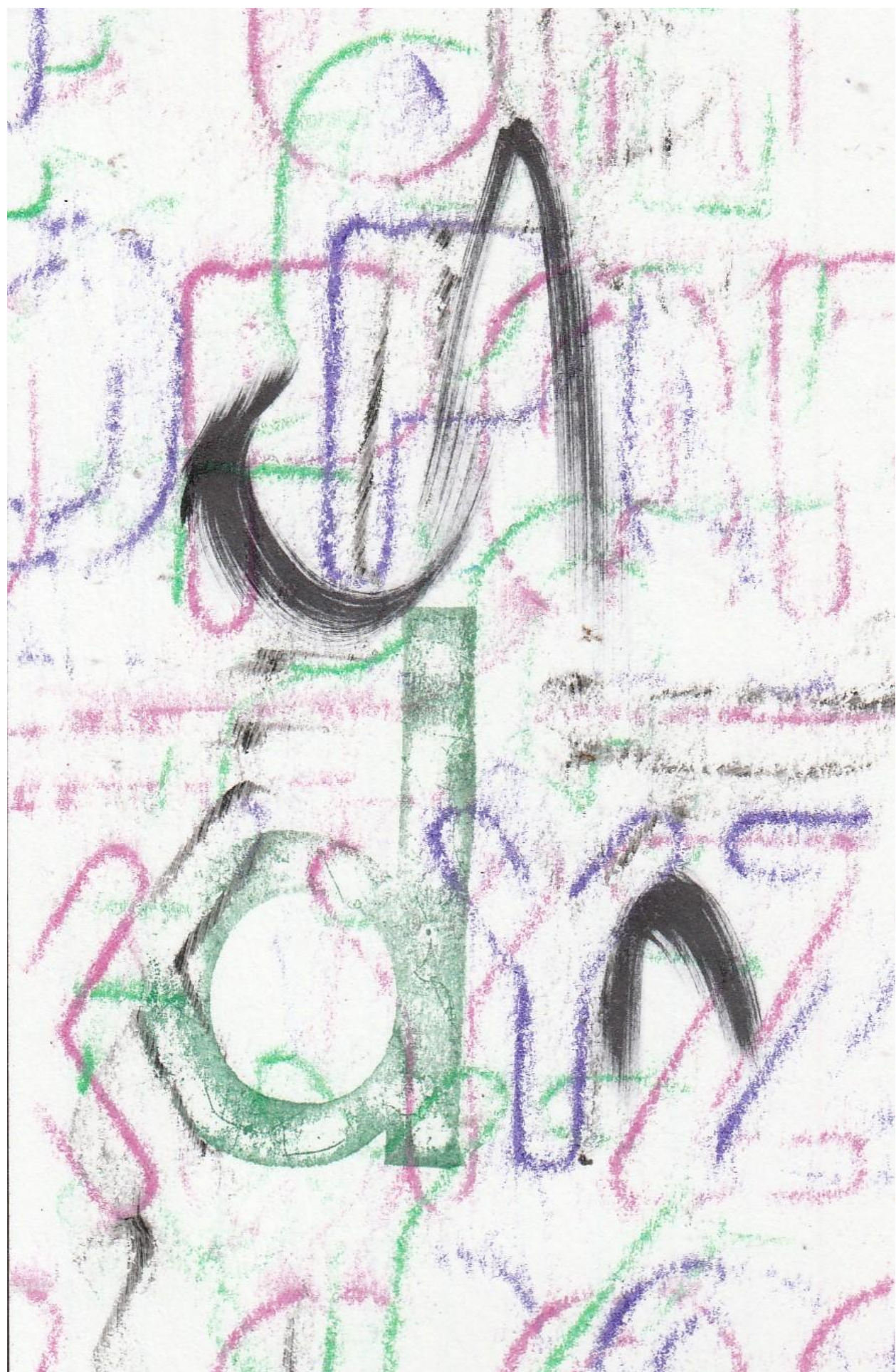
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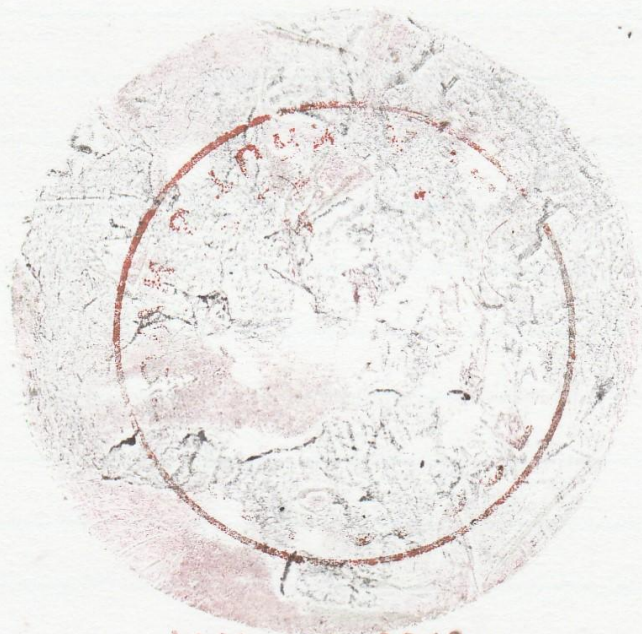
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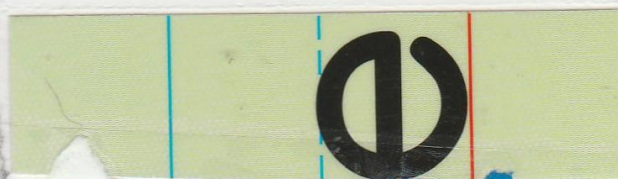
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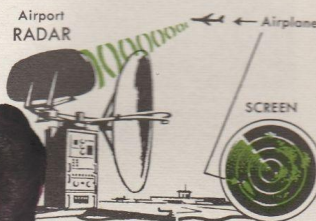
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radar \ˈrā-där\ n.

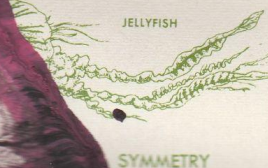
ENGINEERING AND PHYSICS. An electronic device that sends radio waves and receives and analyzes the reflected waves, or echoes. It is used to determine the direction and distance to an object, and uses radio wavelengths in the range of 0.75 cm to 1.0 meter.

RADAR is used by some weather stations to detect cloud masses, hurricanes and other storm activity.



radial symmetry \ˈrād-ē-əl ˈsī-mē-trē\ n. The form of an animal or object in the shape of a cylinder with a central axis, in which similar body parts are arranged as in jellyfish and sea anemones. See bird symmetry.

An animal with RADIAL SYMMETRY can be cut into identical halves in any plane passing through the central axis.



radial velocity

ASTRONOMY. The rate at which a star is approaching or going away from Earth, which is determined by the shift in the spectral lines of the star. A spectroscopic method is used to determine the radial velocity of some stars.

radian \ˈrād-ē-ən\ n.

MATHEMATICS. A unit of angular measure equal to the angle subtended by the radius of a circle. It is an angle in which the radius of a circle intercepts an arc equal in length to the radius. Therefore, is an arc of a circle whose length is equal to that circle.

Because the circumference of a circle is equal to 2π times the radius, 2π radians equal 360 degrees. One RADIAN equals $180/\pi$ degrees.



radiant energy \ˈrād-ē-ənt ˈen-ə-jē\ n.

PHYSICS. Energy that travels as electromagnetic waves, including such energy as light, X rays and radio waves. All RADIANT ENERGY travels at the speed of light.

by Michael Faraday in the 1830s. Practical MHD and EGD devices have had a much shorter history, however. The first large experimental MHD generator was constructed in the U.S. in 1959 by B. Karlovitz and D. Halász. These experiments were unsuccessful, however, because neither the properties of ionized gases nor the need for very high gas temperatures were sufficiently understood. By 1959, technology had progressed sufficiently so that 10 kilowatts of electric power were generated with an MHD device. Extensive research and development continued in Germany, Great Britain, Japan, Poland, the Soviet Union, and the U.S.

Early attempts to construct a practical high-voltage generator were reported in the U.S. in 1932, and in 1935. Large scale work on EGD generation of electricity from fossil fuel dates from the late 1960s, with development work begun in the United States.

The magnetohydrodynamic interaction finds practical application today in flowmeters, accelerators, pumps, and generators. Electromagnetic flowmeters, in use for several decades, do not interfere with fluid flow and have no moving parts. They are used to measure liquid metal flow, flow of animal blood, and ocean currents.

Electromagnetic pump pumps are easy to make corrosion-resistant, and with no moving parts, are often used in handling liquid metal. When used with gaseous working fluids, these devices are called MHD accelerators; space-ship propulsion systems based on the MHD interaction have been proposed.

MAGNETOHYDRODYNAMIC POWER GENERATION

The most important application for magnetohydrodynamics is power generation. In large public-utility plants that burn fossil fuel, significantly more efficient conversion of fuel to electricity and, consequently, savings in fuel and reduction of waste heat can be achieved in an open-cycle MHD generator topping (described later), conventional steam power plant.

In open-cycle operations, the working fluid (gas) is eventually exhausted to the atmosphere; in closed-cycle systems, the fluid is reused. Topping means that the gases generated by burning the fuel (coal, oil, gas) are first passed through an MHD generator and then on to a conventional steam generator.

Closed-cycle nuclear-fueled MHD systems are possible. A gas, heated to a very high temperature by the nuclear reactor, may be passed first through an MHD generator and then through the steam plant. After losing some heat, the gas may be returned to the reactor for reheating.

Power-generating systems. In a power-generating system, the working fluid must be exhausted to the atmosphere must be exhausted. The only practical fluid is the gas from fuel combustion with air or oxygen. The cycle consists of a combustion chamber in which the fuel burns with an oxidizer at a high temperature working fluid. The combustion gases are accelerated through a duct in which electrical power is generated. A diffuser is used to retard the gas and to raise its pressure before it is exhausted to the atmosphere, and to raise its temperature before it is reheated.

The quantity of power generated in a given amount of fluid depends on its electrical conductivity. At the high temperatures attainable with fossil fuels (about 5,430° F (3,000° C)), electrical conductivity of the combustion gases is low to obtain adequate power yield. Consequently, the gas is seeded with a material such as potassium, which ionizes easily and raises power yields to acceptable levels.

As the gas expands in the duct and power is extracted, the gas cools and its electrical conductivity falls rapidly. At about 3,630° F (2,000° C), the MHD power-generation process ceases to be economically attractive, and the simple open-cycle system thus has a low efficiency. Since the exhausted gas is still hot in comparison with normal power-plant working fluids, the efficiency of the simple open-cycle system can be substantially increased

by recovering the energy remaining in the gas stream with conventional methods.

Open cycle with heat recovery. Heat energy recovered from the MHD duct exhaust gas is used in two ways. First, it heats the high-pressure air fed to the combustion chamber. Second, the remaining heat is used to produce steam in a conventional boiler and power is generated in the conventional way.

The heat recovery is accomplished when the exhaust gas is cooled, and the heat is transferred to the condenser, on which the steam is condensed. Once the steam is condensed, it is collected. Once the steam is collected, it is sent to a precipitator where the particulate matter is removed. The steam is then sent to a stack. About 10% of the heat is lost in the stack. The heat recovery is accomplished when the exhaust gas is cooled, and the heat is transferred to the condenser, on which the steam is condensed. Once the steam is condensed, it is collected. Once the steam is collected, it is sent to a precipitator where the particulate matter is removed. The steam is then sent to a stack. About 10% of the heat is lost in the stack. The heat recovery is accomplished when the exhaust gas is cooled, and the heat is transferred to the condenser, on which the steam is condensed. Once the steam is condensed, it is collected. Once the steam is collected, it is sent to a precipitator where the particulate matter is removed. The steam is then sent to a stack. About 10% of the heat is lost in the stack.

The closed-cycle system is more complicated. In the closed-cycle system, the working fluid is recycled. The gas is heated in a reactor before it enters the MHD generator. The working fluid is recycled, its loss is no longer a primary concern, and the gas can be chosen for its heat transfer and electrical properties. Helium is the most attractive gas, and cesium (though expensive) is the most easily ionized seed material. This system may be practical for bulk power generation because it offers a potential means of obtaining greater efficiencies from advanced fusion reactors. The top gas temperatures required are lower than peak open-cycle temperatures because certain processes can be used to increase electrical conductivity. A heat-recovery plant is still employed, however, because the conductivity of the fluid is too low for the process to be attractive at temperatures that are high by conventional steam-plant standards.

Closed-cycle liquid-metal systems are also being developed. These are a compromise between the higher thermal efficiency of gas-cycle top systems and the advantage of higher conductivity obtained by using liquid metal as the working fluid. Liquid metals have many times the electrical conductivity than seeded gases at all temperatures; power yields per given quantity of fluid can be about 20 times higher than in MHD devices using ionized gases (plasma).

Many liquid-metal cycles have been proposed for space power and central power-station applications. In these, the liquid metal is heated in a nuclear reactor, and the flow is vaporized; and the vapour is accelerated to a high velocity in a nozzle; the vapour mixes with the liquid, and the liquid flow is accelerated; when the vapour and liquid are separated, the liquid enters the MHD generator where part of its kinetic energy is converted to electricity. Liquid-metal systems are less efficient than gas systems.

MHD generator geometries. For liquid-metal MHD systems, the linear duct with a single electrode on each side as shown in Figure 46 is adequate. In gaseous systems designed for bulk power generation, however, a more complicated electrode geometries are required because of the Hall effect (named after its discoverer, U.S. physicist E.H. Hall) which the motion of the electrons that carry the current oppose to the magnetic field, produces an additional electric field along the duct axis. This additional electric field, called the Hall effect, causes axial currents that seriously reduce the electrical efficiency of the generator. To prevent this, the duct is divided into segments, each of which is connected to separate loads (Figure 48A). The result is a Faraday generator. (In Figure 48A, through 48E, the induced voltage is represented by I and the magnetic field by B .)

When the duct is divided into segments, the transverse currents may be shorted out, and the axial current used for a single load (Figure 48B); this is a Hall generator. The advantage of the Hall generator with its higher efficiency of the Faraday generator is offset by diagonally cross-connecting electrodes (Figure 48C).

Other duct designs or geometries have been proposed to counteract the Hall effect. One is the Hall generator (Figure 48D), in which the gas flows radially outward be-

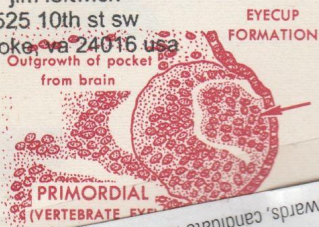
The Hall effect

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POEM

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prime mover \ˈprīm ˈmü-vər\

PHYSICS. Any engine that converts the energy of natural substances into mechanical energy.

A diesel engine is an efficient PRIME MOVER that converts the chemical energy of oil and air into usable power.

prime number \ˈprīm ˈnəm-bər\

MATHEMATICS. A positive whole number that is divisible only by itself and by 1, as 2, 3, 5, 7, 11, 13 or 17.

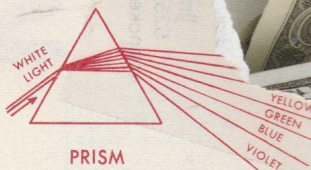
Every PRIME NUMBER except 2 is an odd number.

primordial \prī-mōrd-ē-əl\

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Paid for by the Democratic Party of Virginia, authorized by John Edwards, candidate for State Senate.
Check the Facts: 1. Roanoke Times, 7/25/15; WTVR CBS 6, 1/19/15; 2. U.S. Department of Labor

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efficiency mirrors in such optical devices
special techniques prevent the formation of a spectrum. 2.
MATHEMATICS. A polyhedron having two faces, called bases,
that are parallel, congruent polygons, and whose other faces
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A triangular PRISM of clear rock salt can form a spectrum from infrared radiation as well as a visible spectrum from light.

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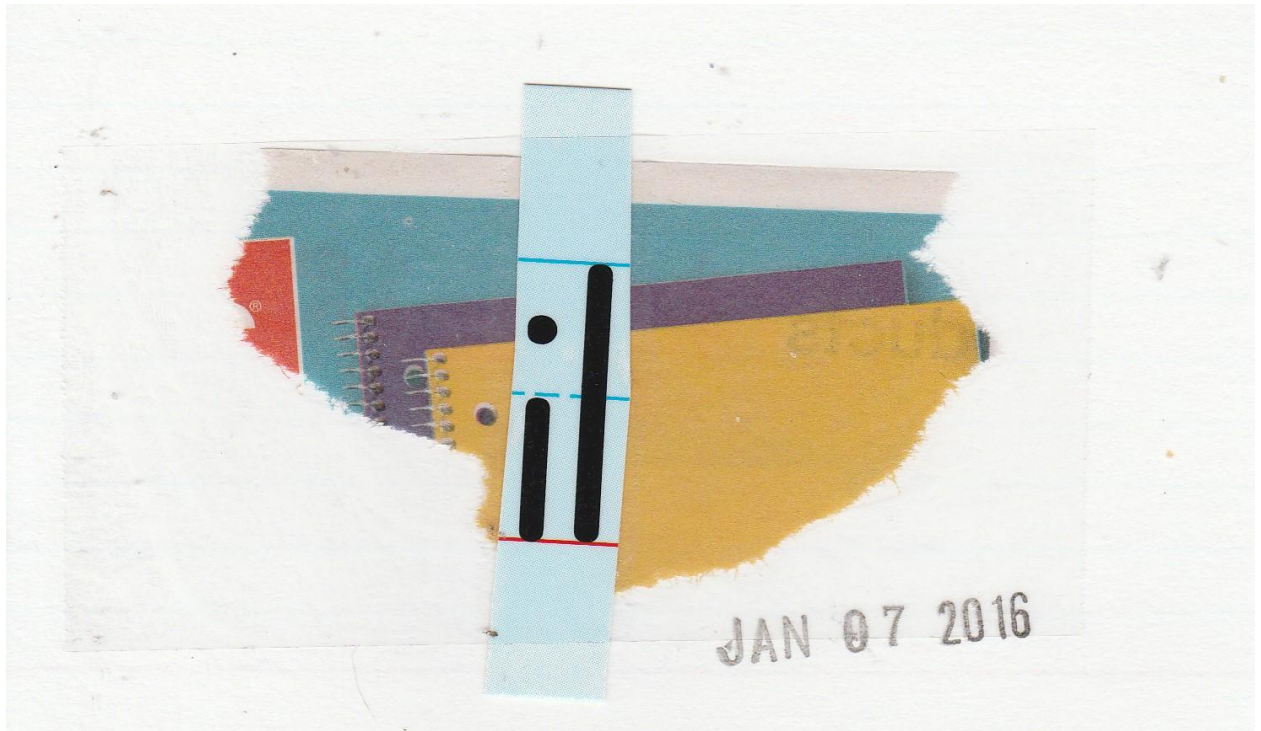
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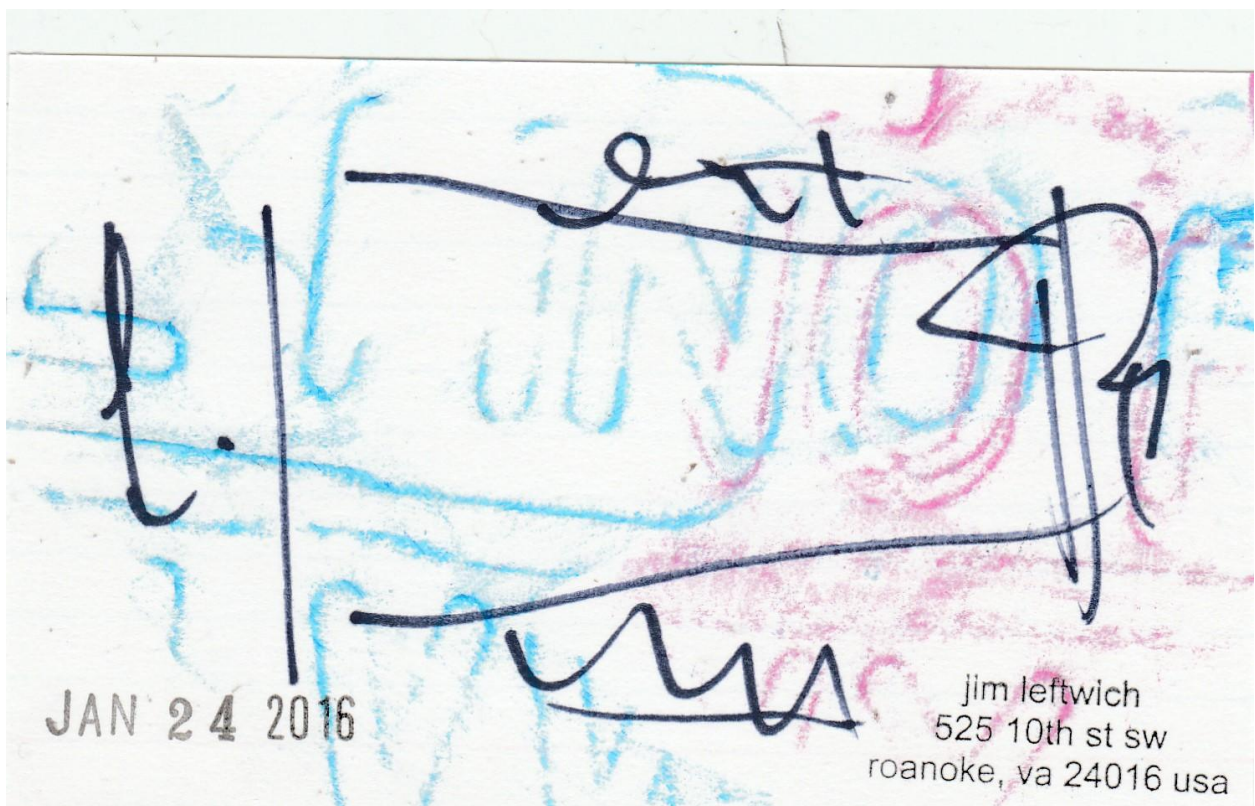
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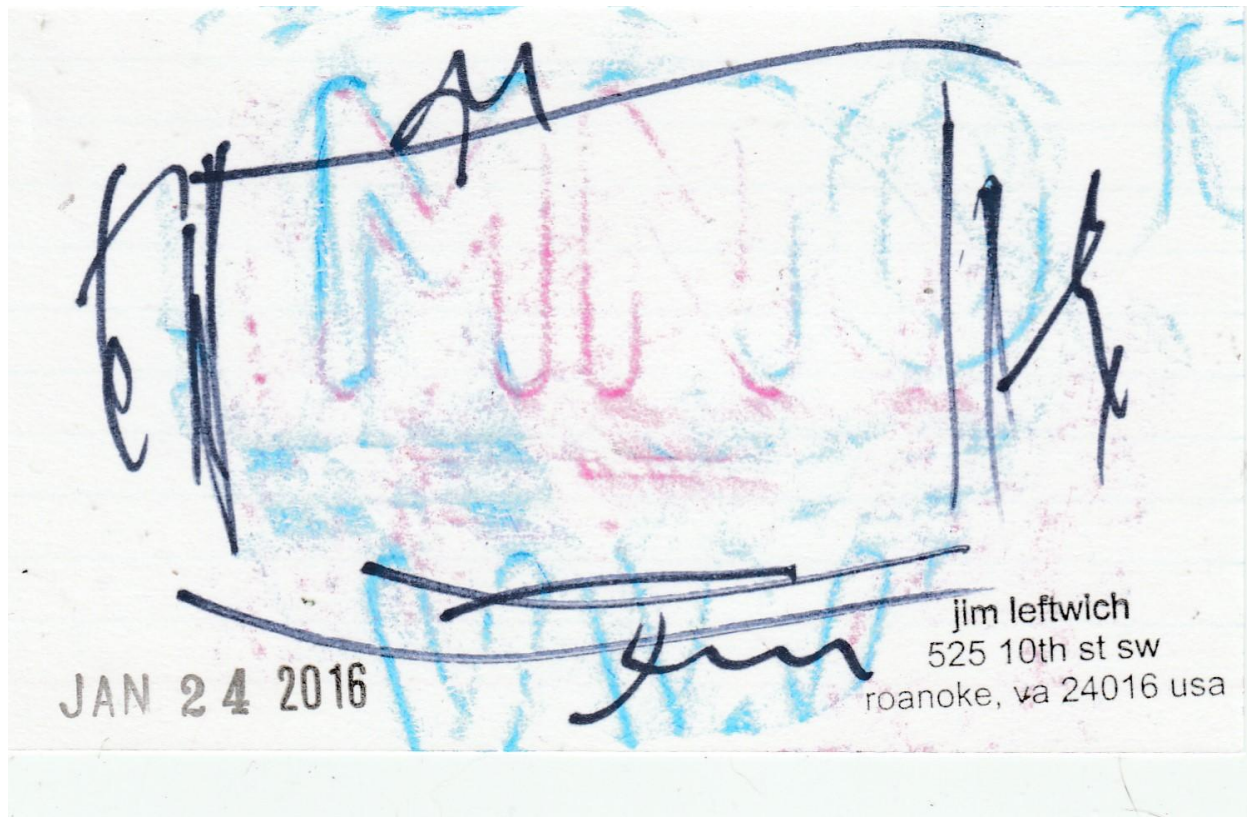
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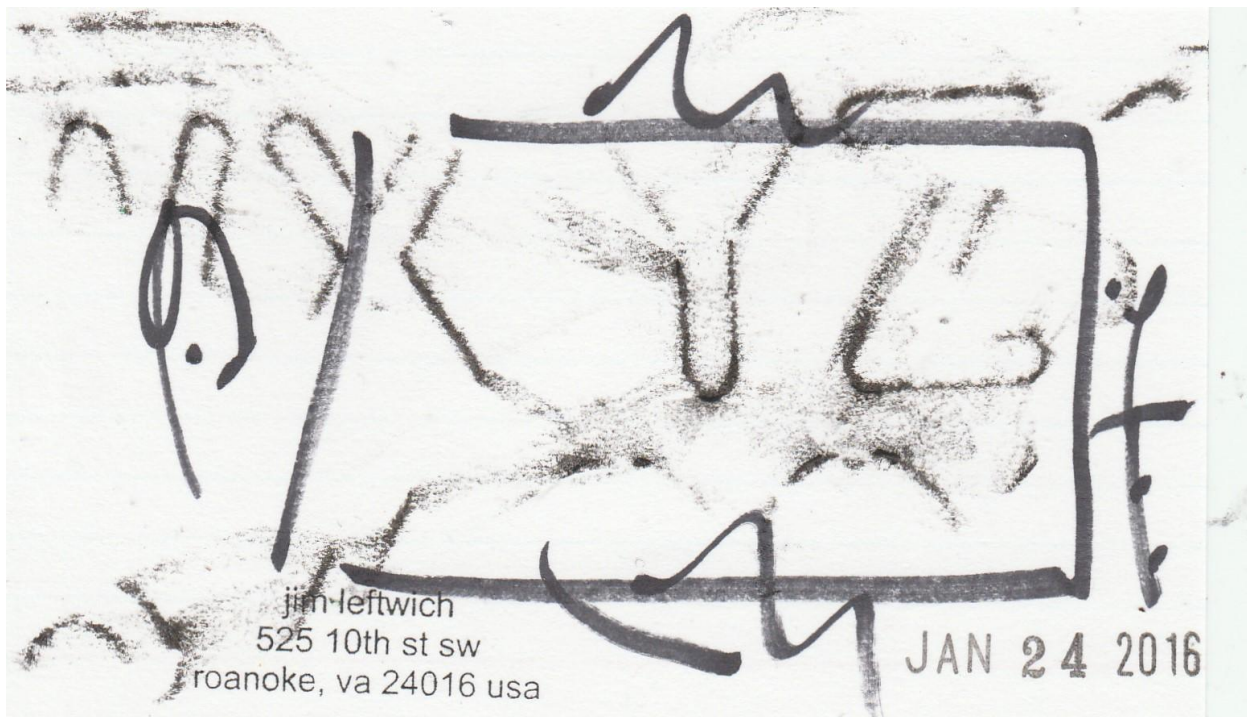


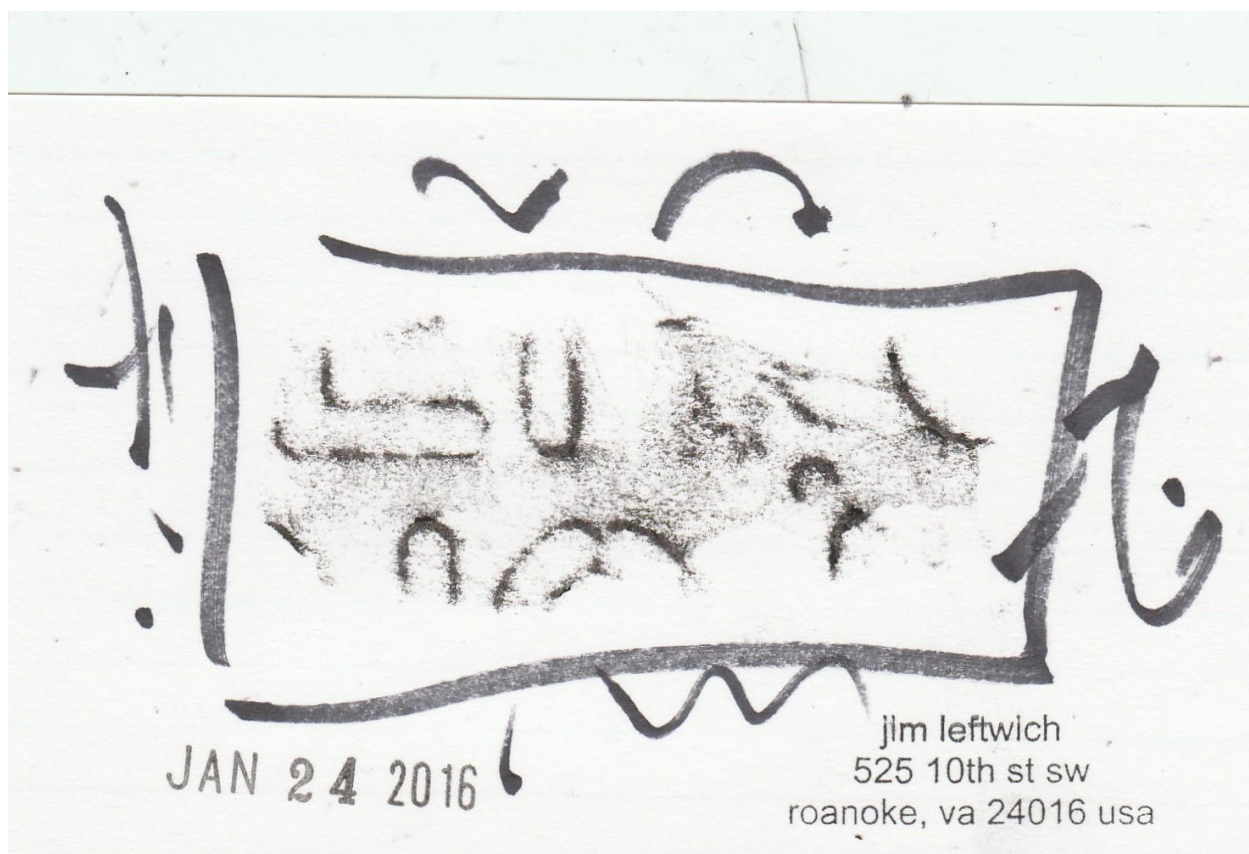
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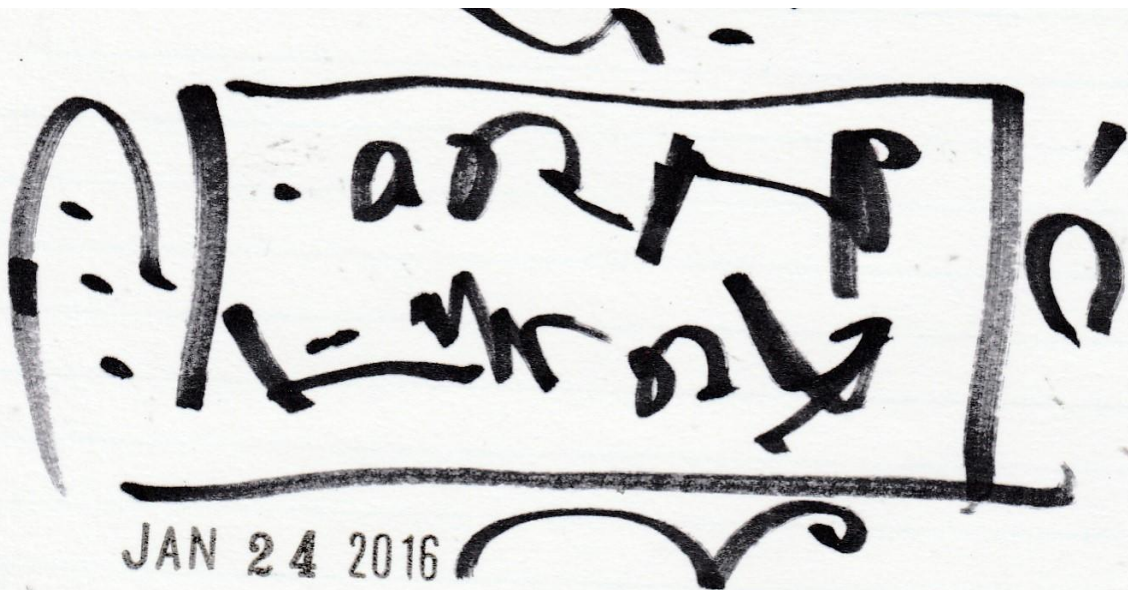








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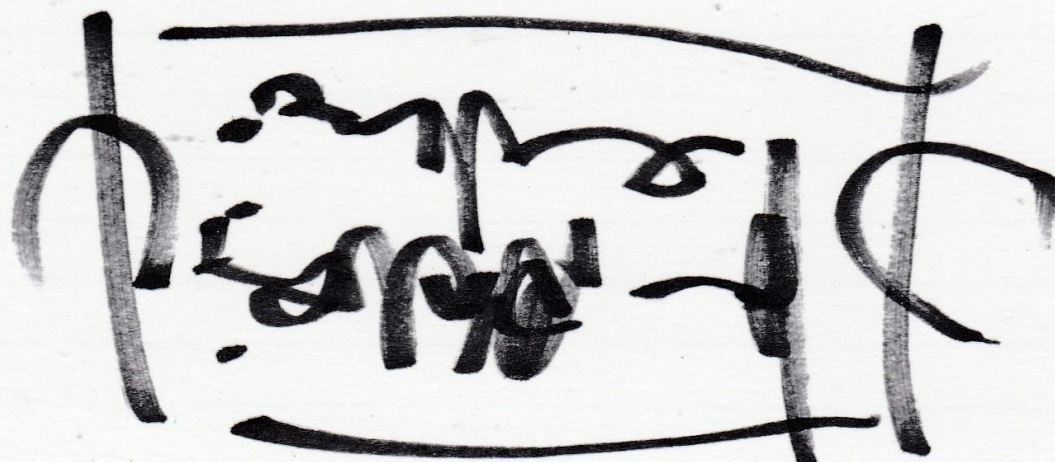
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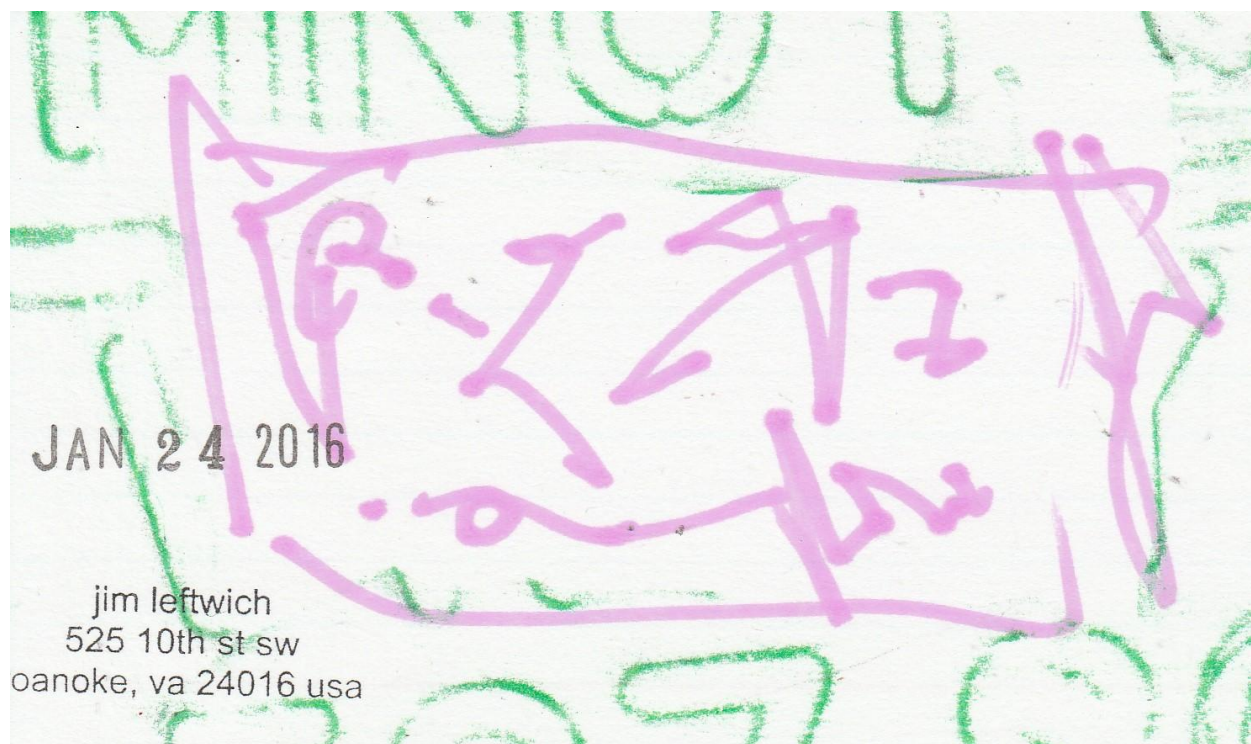
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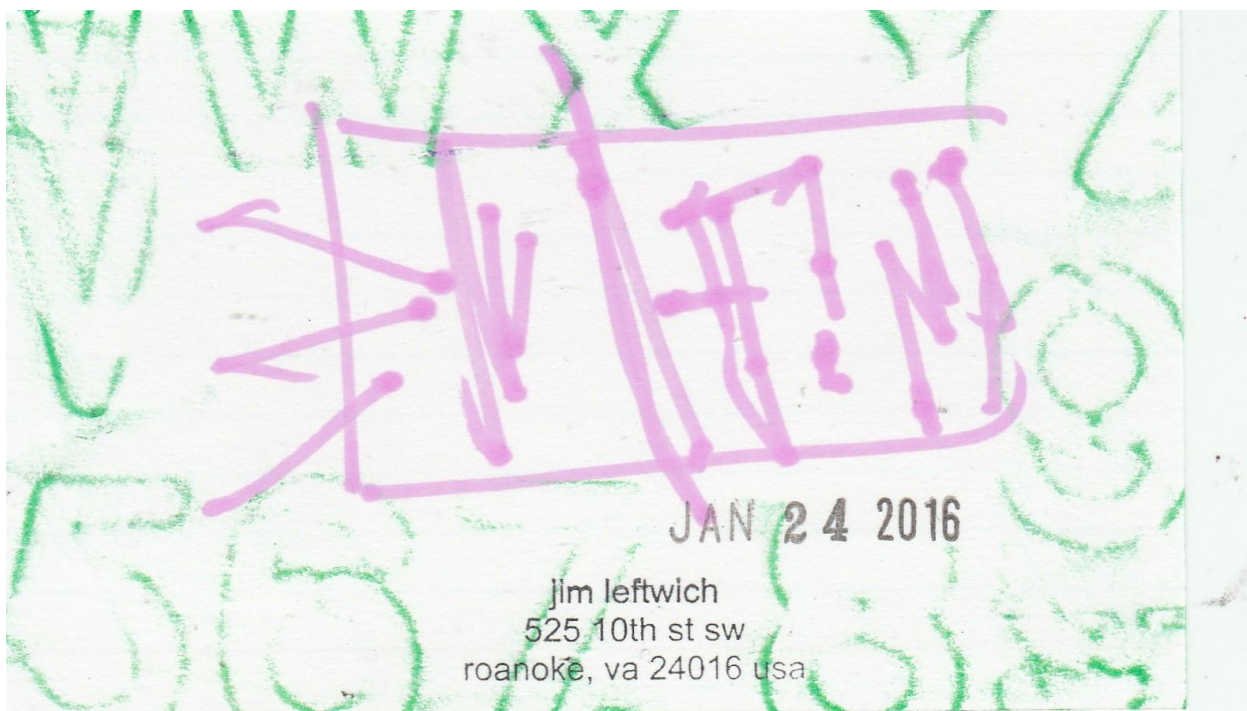
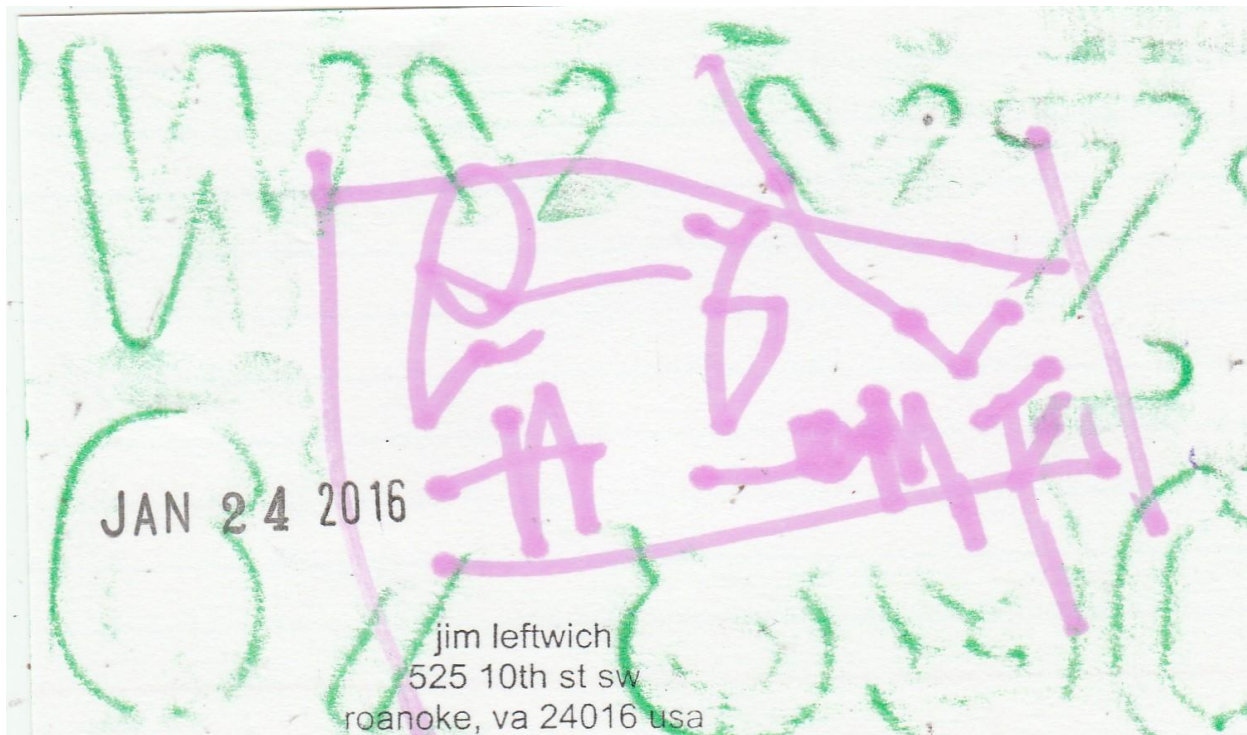
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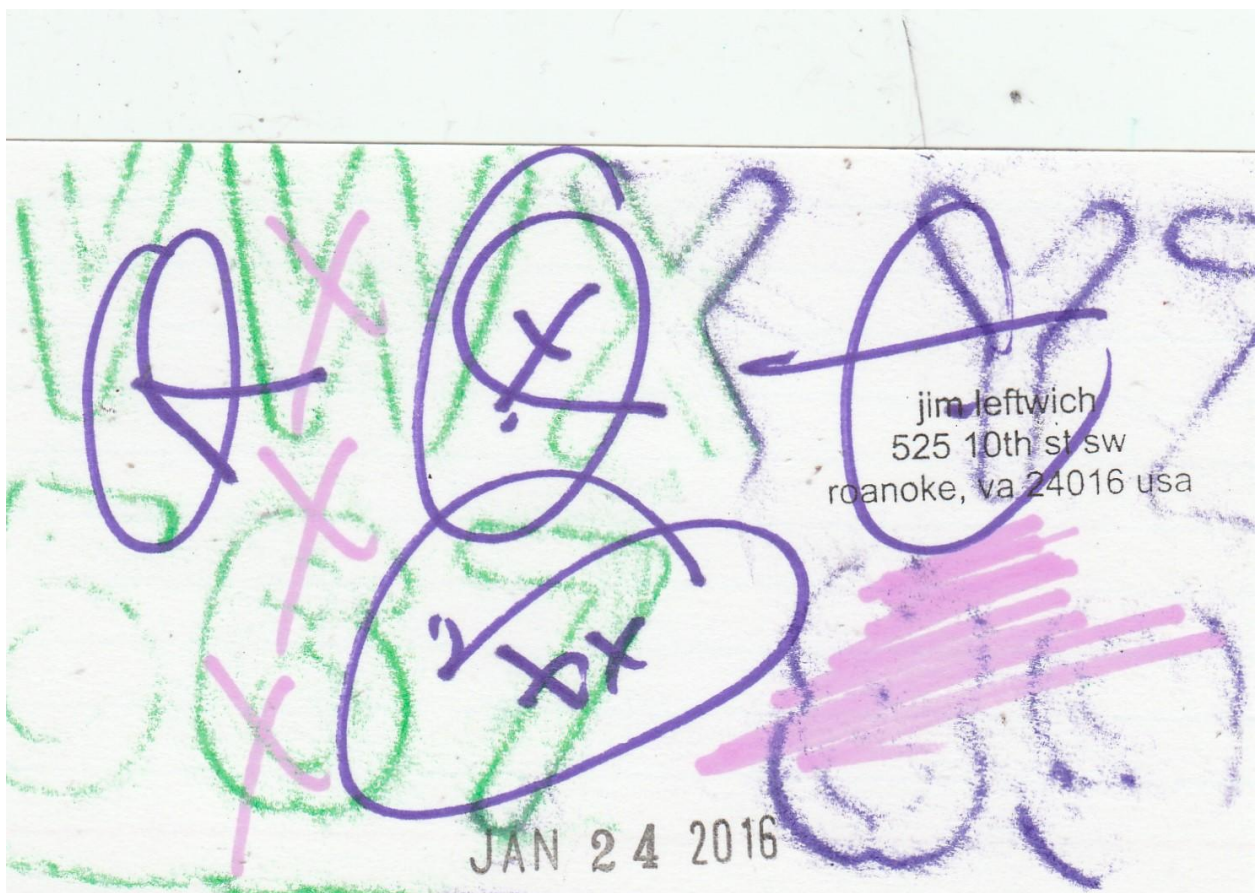
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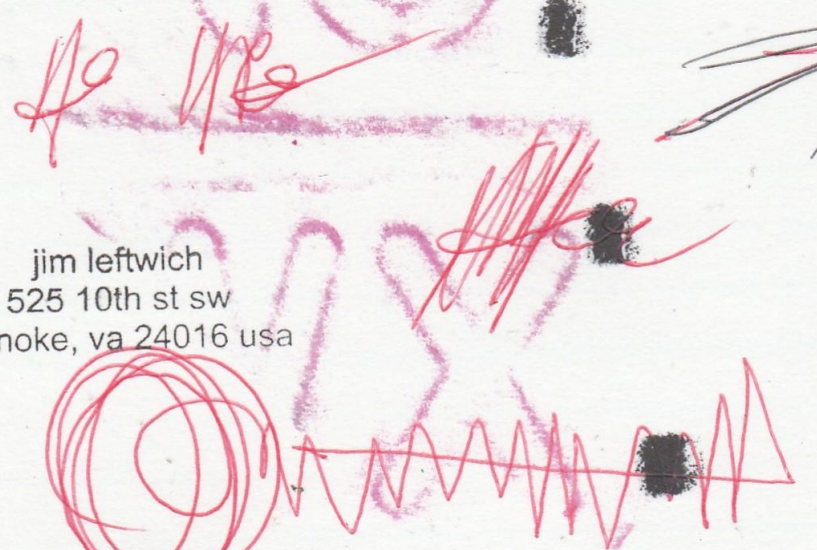


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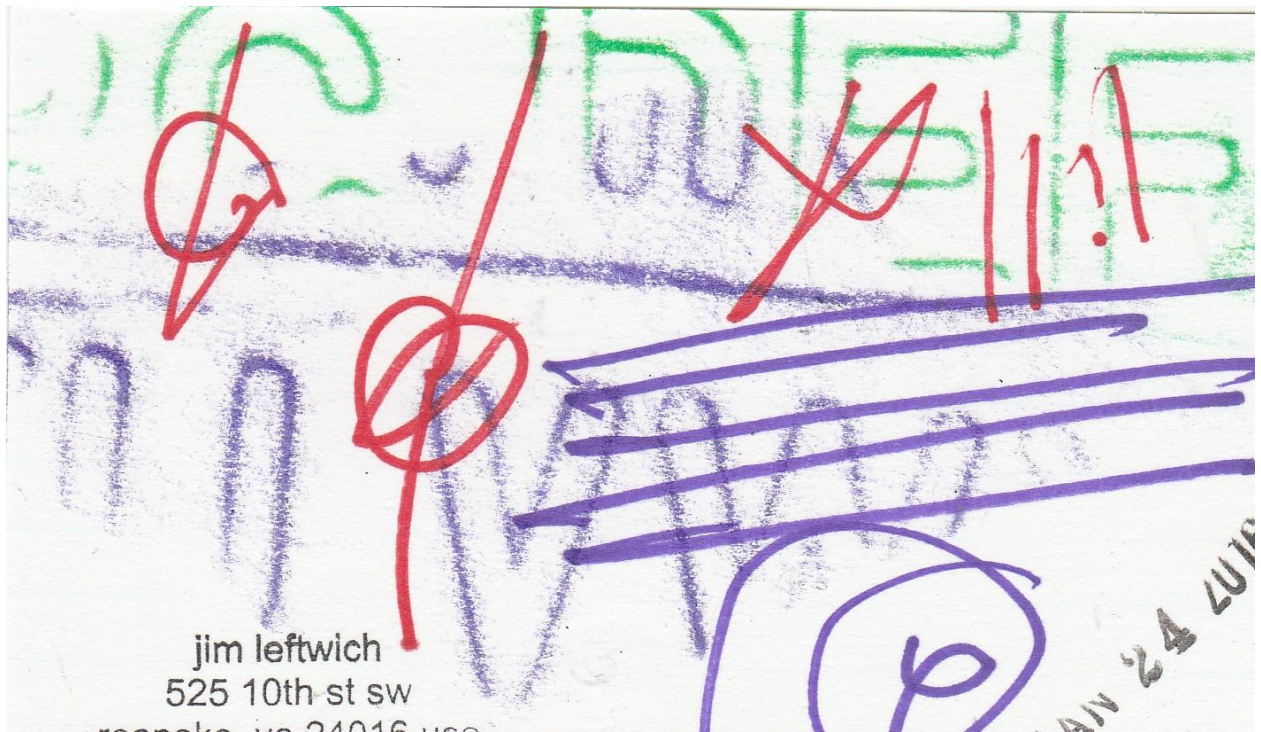






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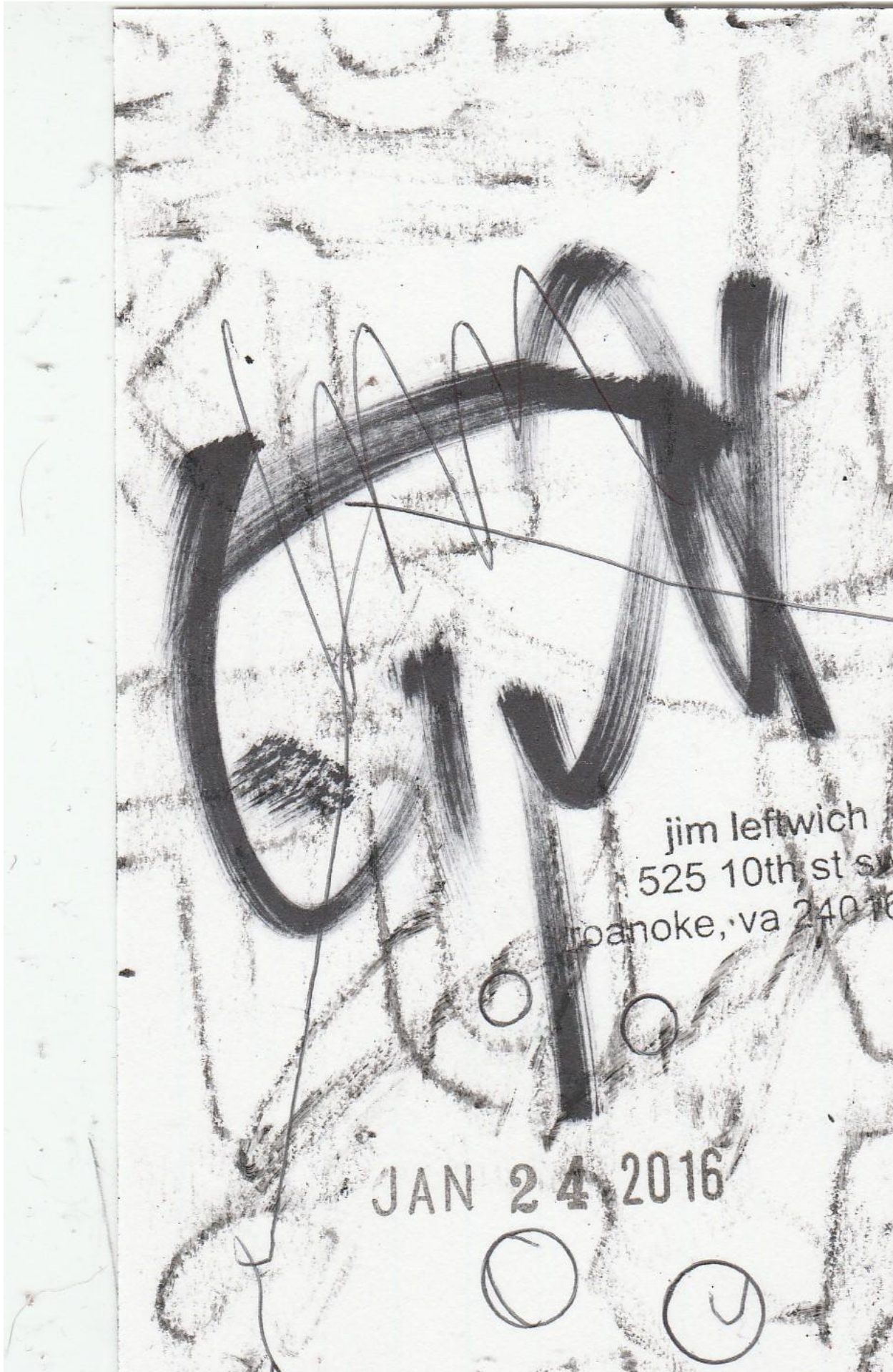
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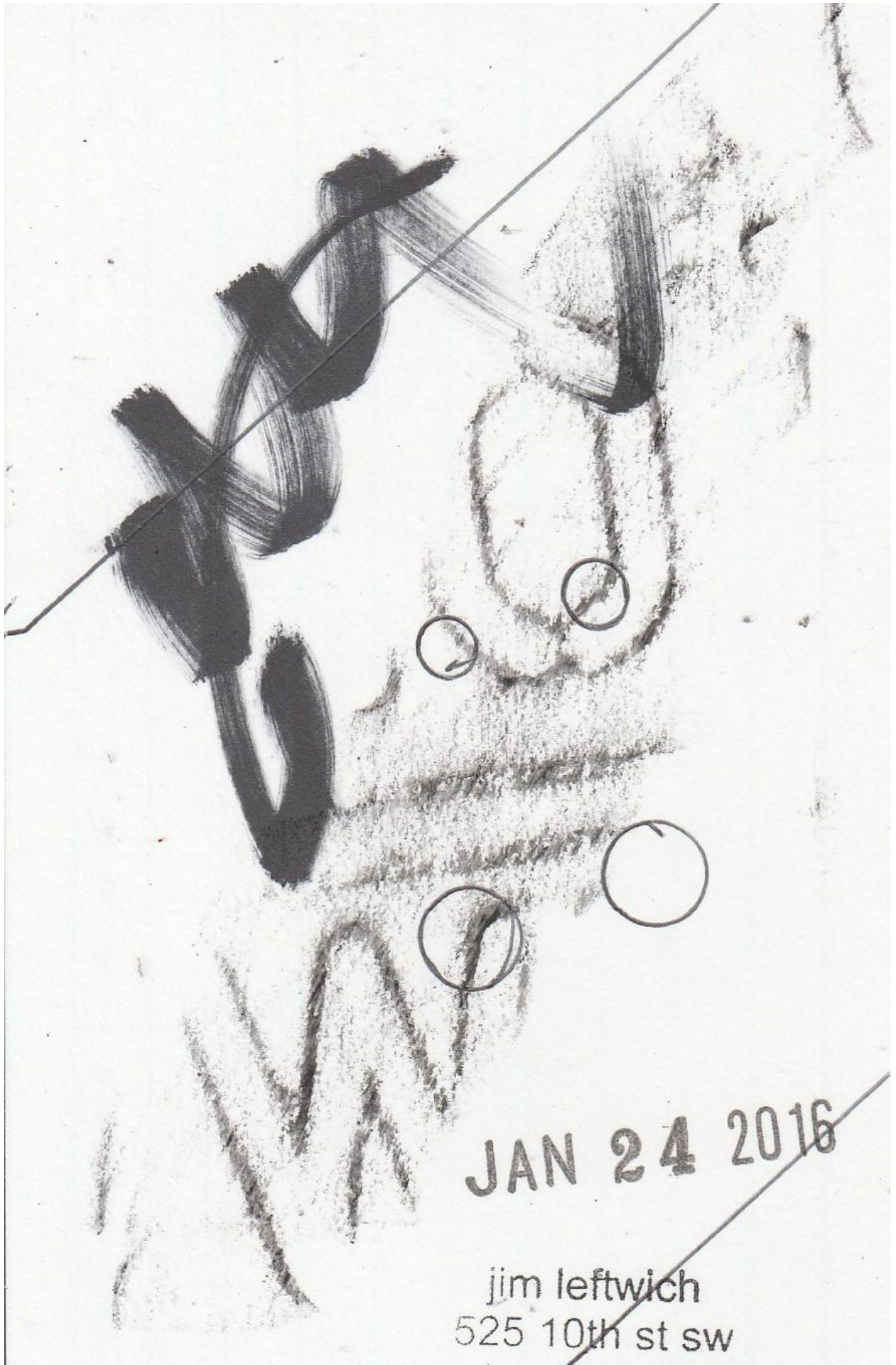
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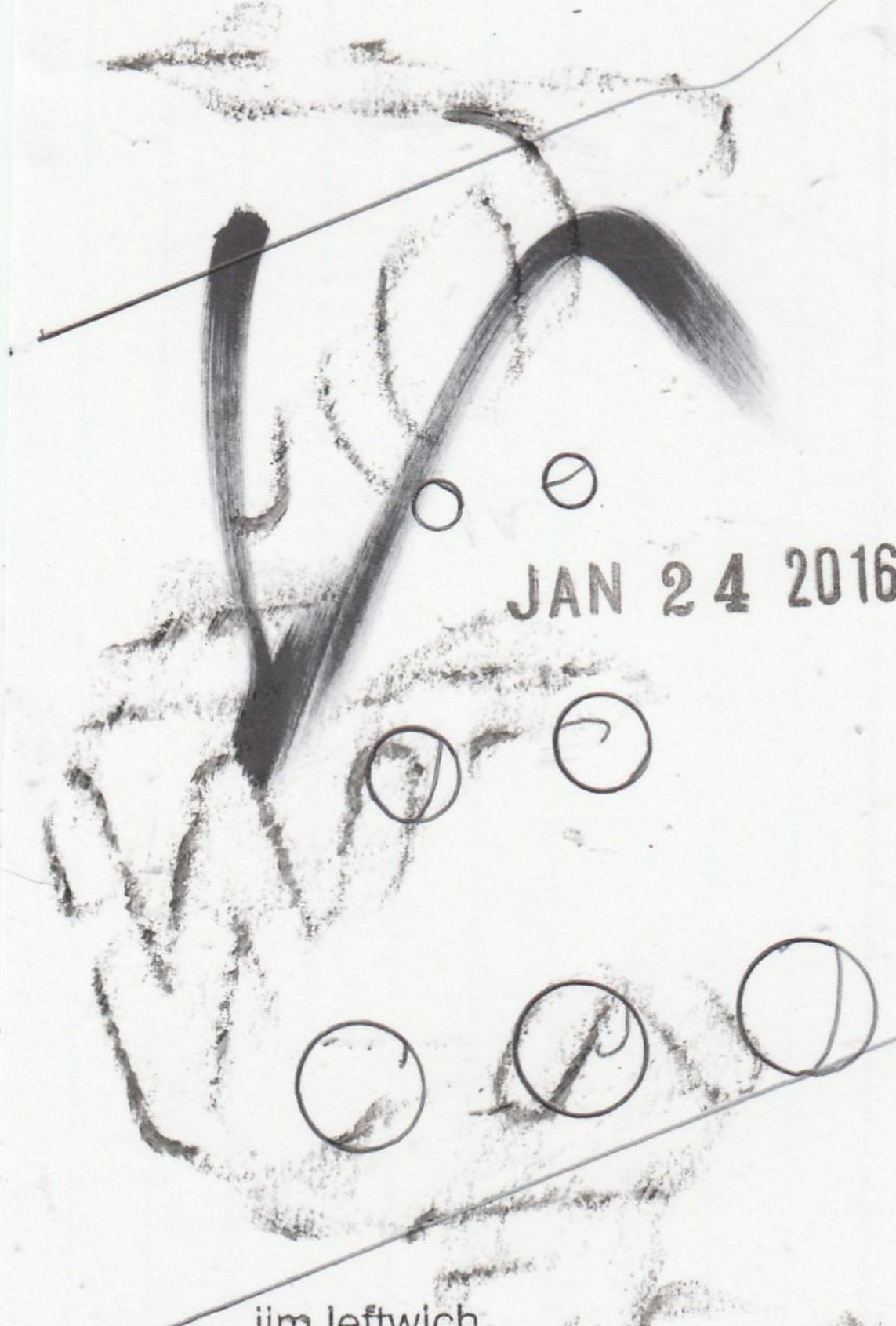
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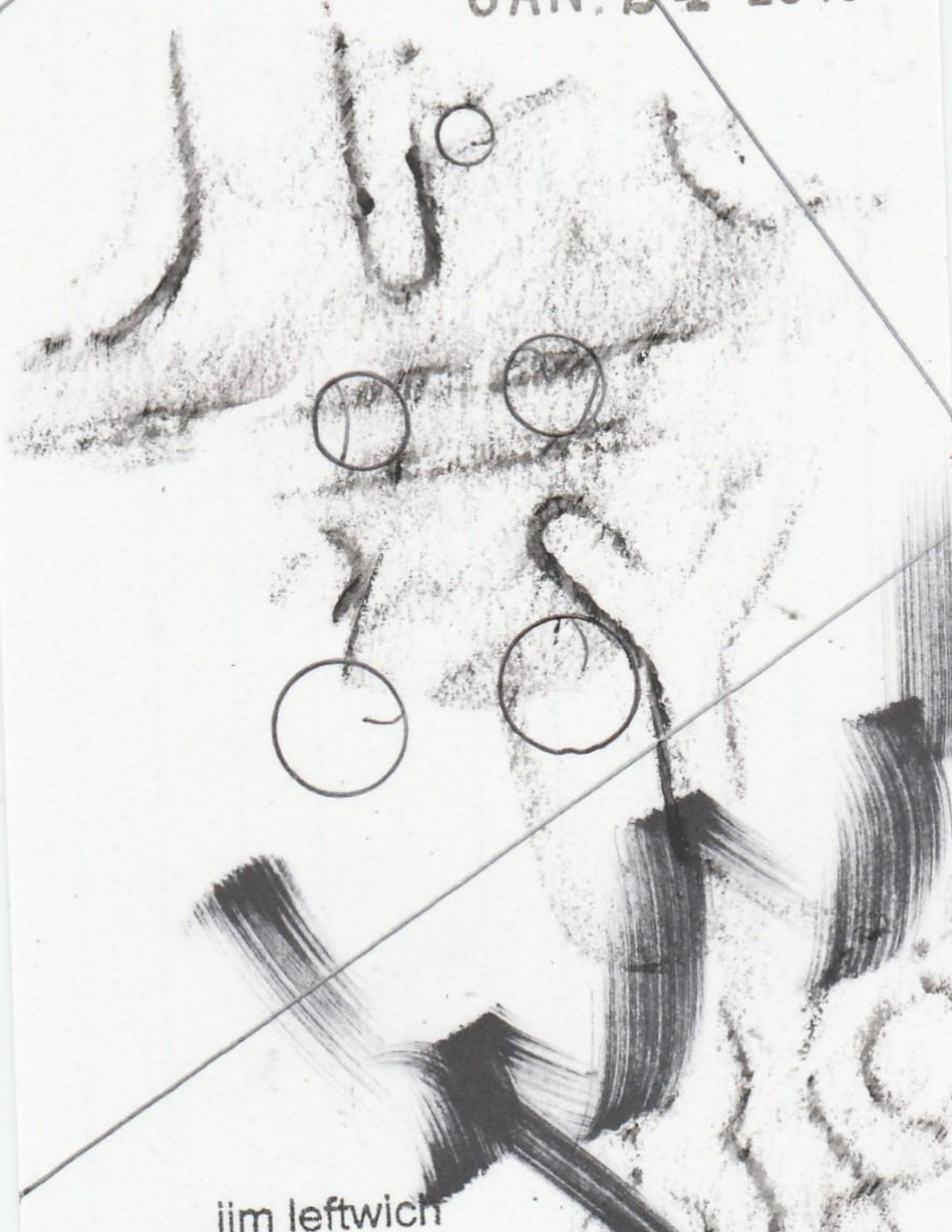
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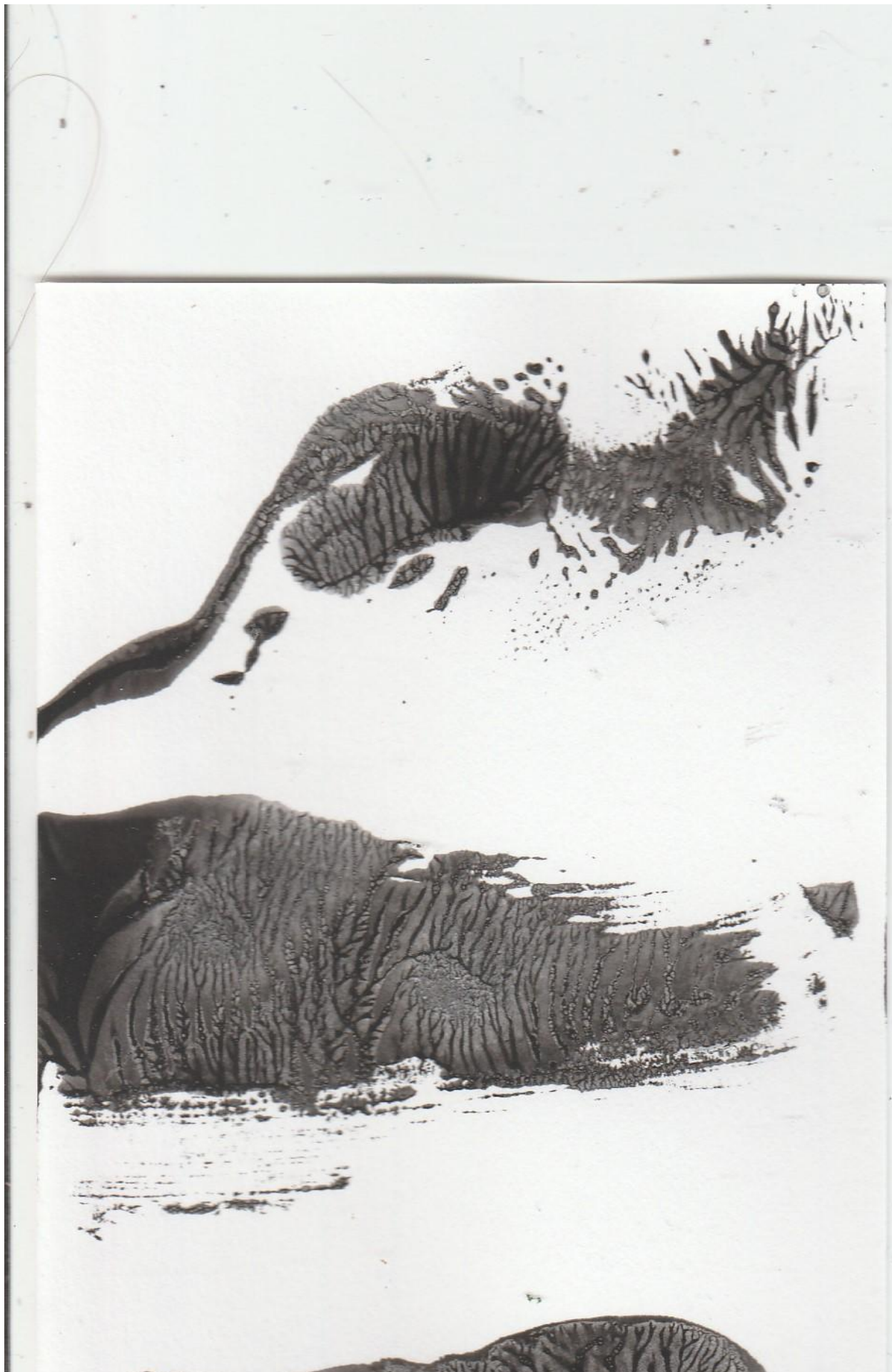
















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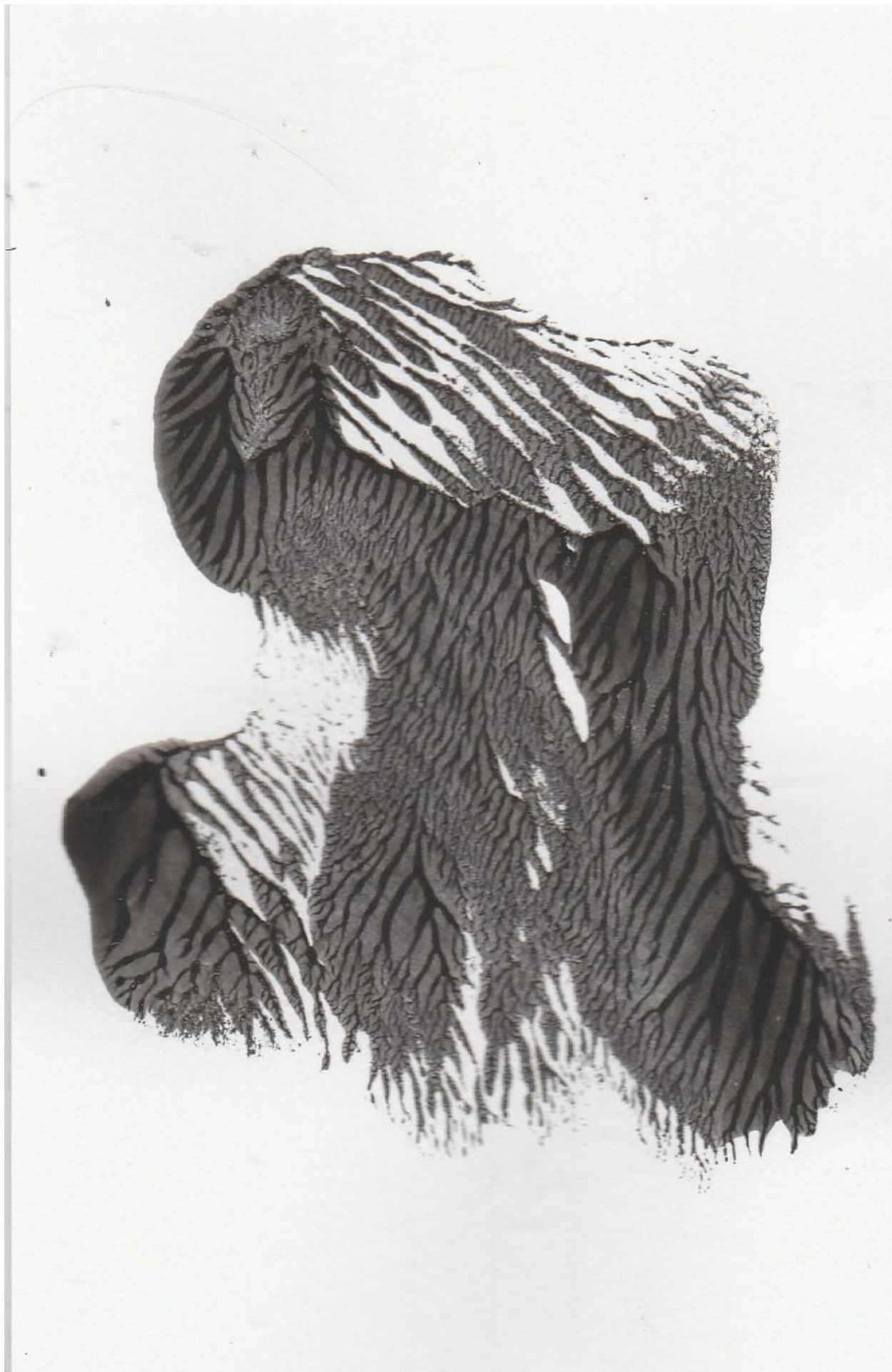








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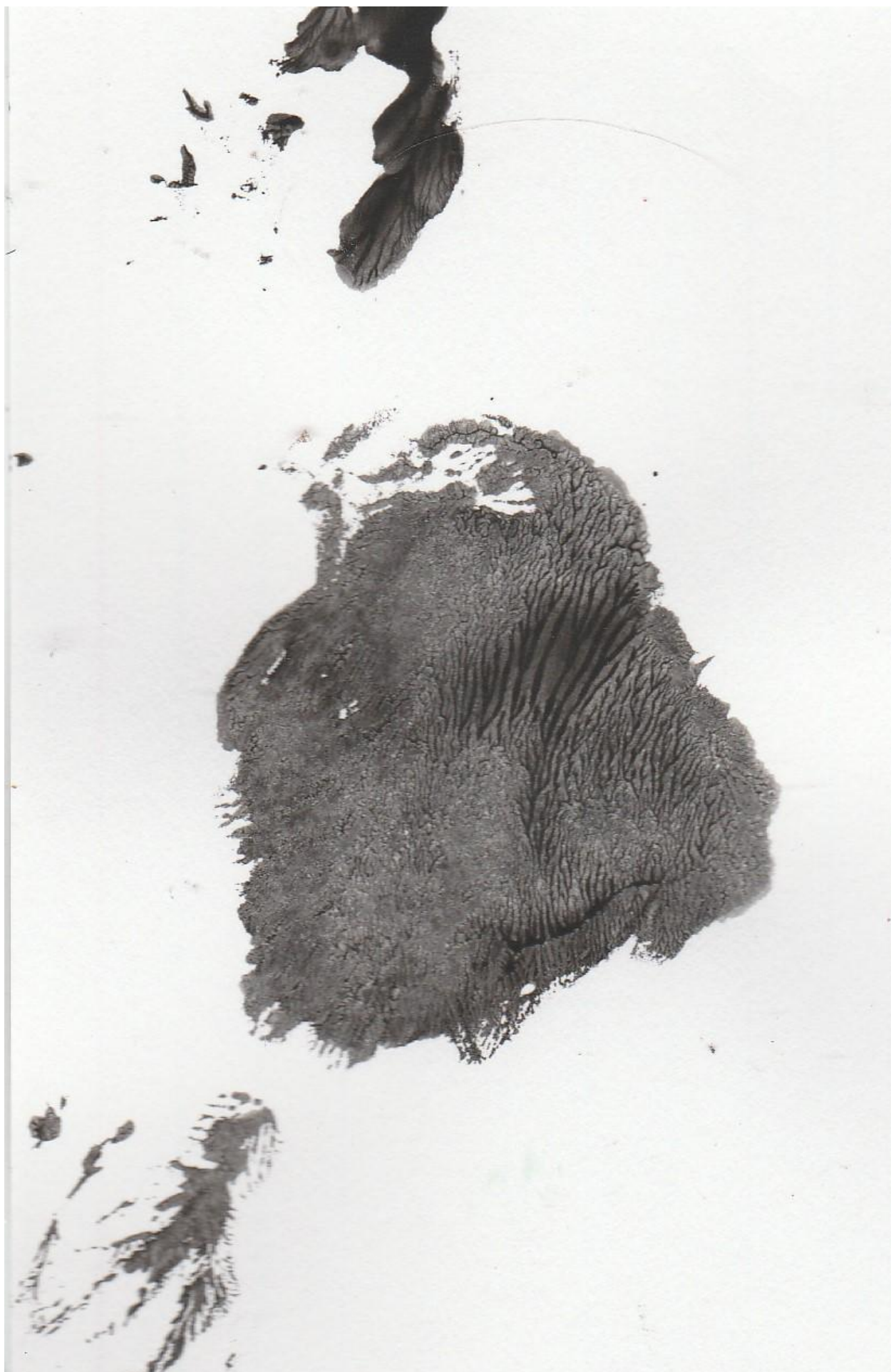
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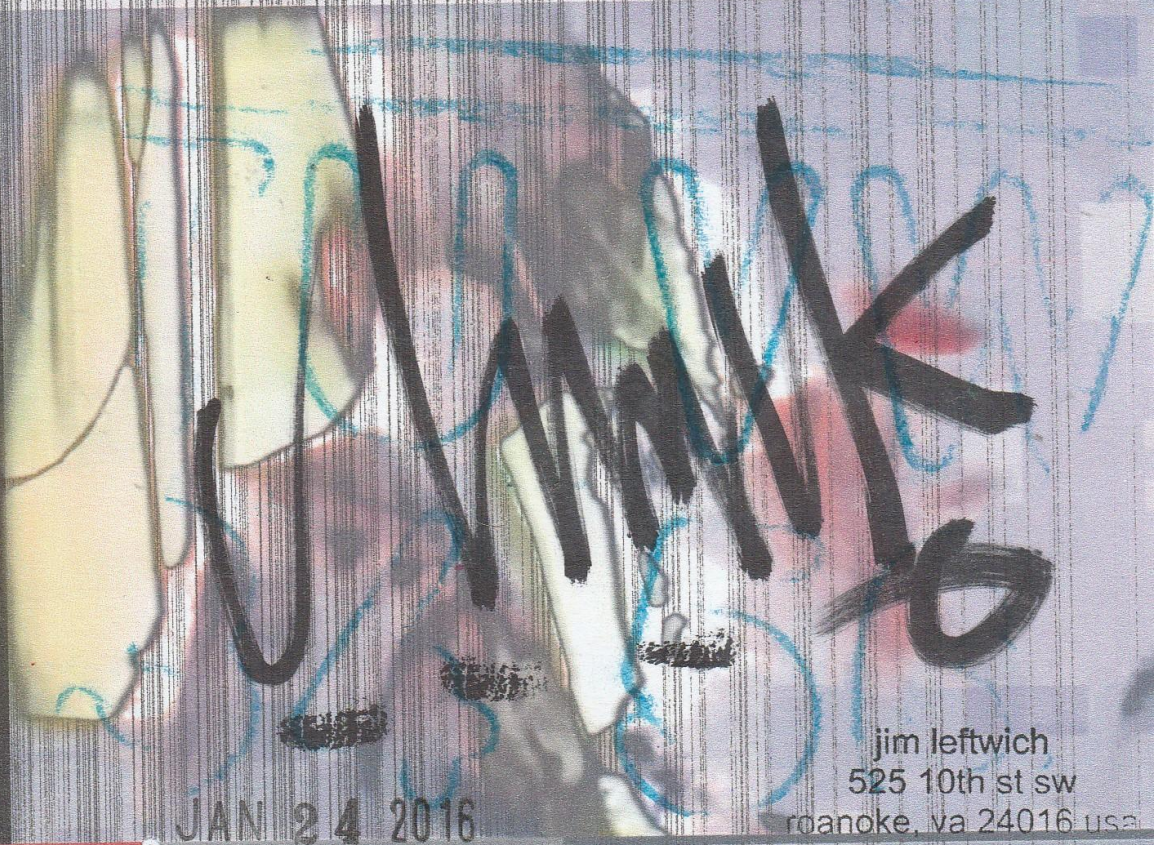
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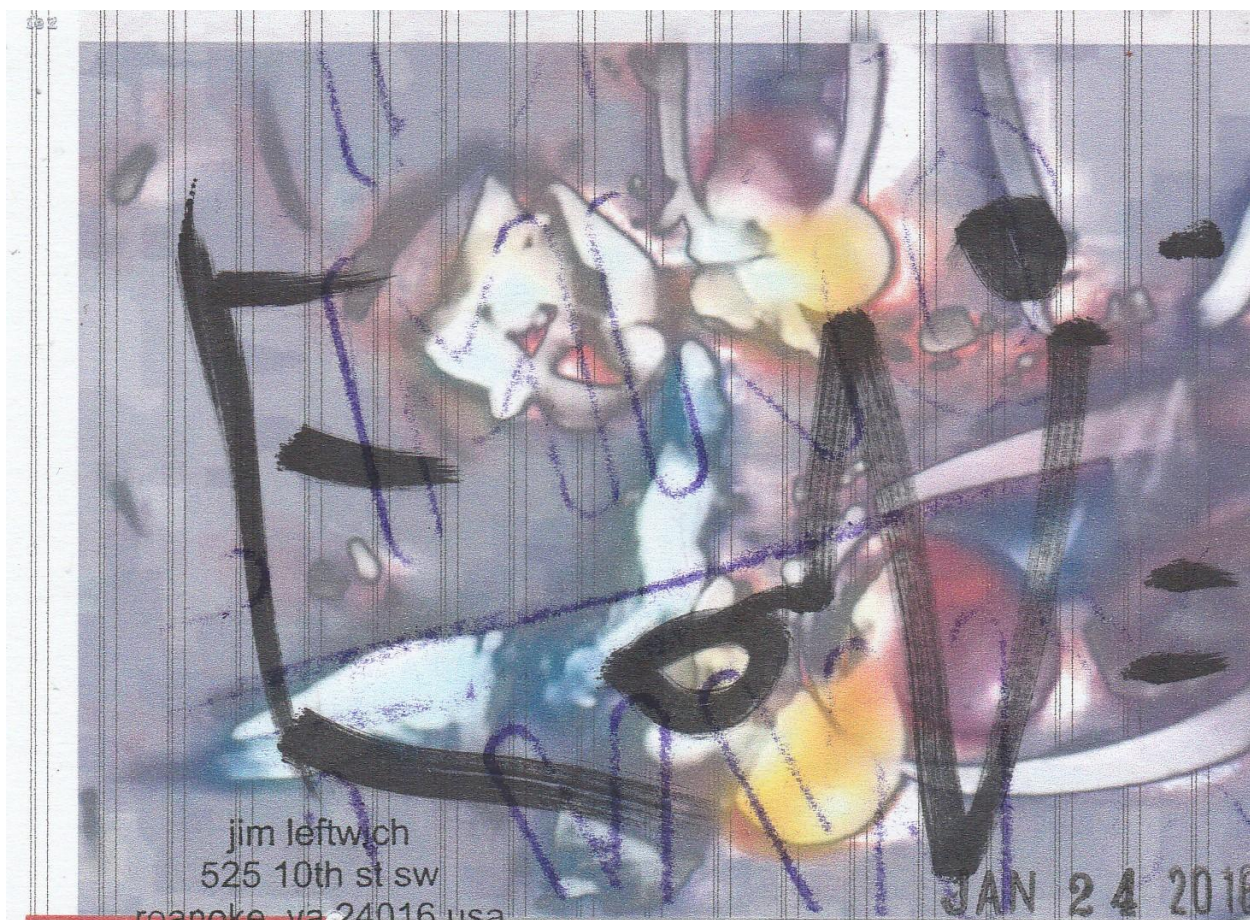
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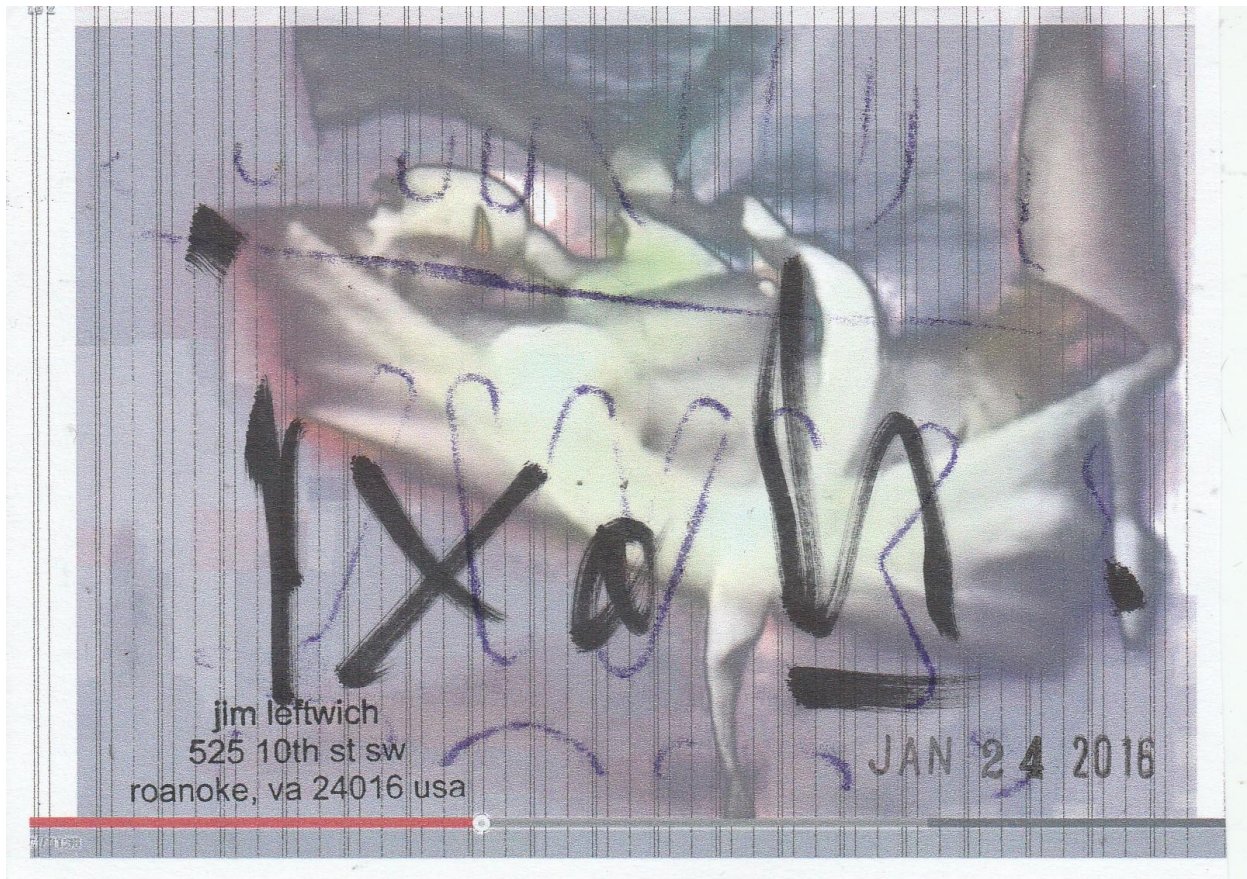
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Table 5: Nuclear Electric Power Plant Prototypes (1962)

name and owner	location	type	power		start-up
			plant kw (*)	reactor kw (†)	
Shippingport Atomic Power Station (AEC and Duquesne Light Company)	Shippingport, Ohio	pressurized water	60,000	231,000	1957
Dresden Nuclear Power Station (Commonwealth Edison Company)	Morris, Ill.	boiling water	208,000	700,000	1959
Yankee Nuclear Power Station (Yankee Atomic Electric Company)	Roseville, Mass.	pressurized water	161,000	540,000	1960
Indian Point Unit No. 1 (Consolidated Edison Co. of New York)	Indian Point, N.Y.	pressurized water	255,000	585,000	1962
Hallam Nuclear Power Station (Sheldon Station, Inc. and Consumers Electric Power District)	Hallam, Neb.	sodium-graphite	75,000	240,000	1962
Big Rock Nuclear Power Plant (Consumers Power Company)	Big Rock Point, Mich.	pressurized water	47,800	157,000	1962
Elk River Reactor (Rural and Rural Cooperative Association)	Elk River, Minn.	pressurized water	20,000	58,200	1962
West Germany (Rhine-Ruhr Power Company, RWE)	Kahla, East Germany	pressurized water	15,000	60,000	1960
Belgium (Center for the Study of Nuclear Energy, CEN)	Doel, Belgium	pressurized water	11,500	43,000	1962

*Electrical output. †Thermal output.

plant with 60,000 kilowatts of electrical power. The technology was derived largely from experience with the submarine thermal reactor.

The concept of a boiling-water reactor was derived from experiments at the Argonne National Laboratory with a small reactor that had been allowed to boil the water surrounding the core on a continuous basis, thus suggesting the possibility of direct coupling to a steam turbine instead of using hot pressurized water from the reactor to produce steam in a boiler separate from the reactor. The experiment had shown that if the control rods were abruptly removed, thus causing a sudden power expansion, the boiling water became steam so rapidly that the moderating effect of the water was lost and the chain reaction came to a stop long before the fuel elements were damaged.

The homogeneous reactor was to be based upon experience at Oak Ridge. It would be slightly larger, and was intended to serve as a prototype for a still larger plant.

The sodium-graphite reactor was intended to combine the well-known graphite technology as the moderator with sodium cooling to achieve higher temperatures for more efficient power production, without the inconvenience of the high pressures associated with water cooling.

Finally, the potential advantages of a fast-breeder reactor were well recognized. With the success of the original experimental breeder reactor (EBR-I), it was decided that the Argonne National Laboratory should build a larger version (the EBR-II), also to be in Idaho at the National Reactor Testing Station. It would be scaled up to about 60,000 kilowatts of heat with an electrical production of about 15,000 kilowatts. It would be loaded first with uranium-235 and later with plutonium in order to enable it to produce larger amounts of plutonium in the uranium blanket.

By the end of the decade, each of these five experimental reactors was operating and another had been added. A small reactor moderated with organic material had been tried because of its potential for producing fairly high steam temperatures at relatively low pressures. A major disadvantage, however, was the low heat-transfer properties of the organic material and its tendency to decompose and polymerize (combine two or more small molecules into large ones).

Except for the homogeneous-reactor concept, each of the experimental reactors led to the design and construction of industrial prototypes or demonstration reactors. Some of these plants were large enough to produce a significant amount of power, but there was still no proof that the

costs could be made competitive with power plants burning fossil fuels.

The European Atomic Energy Community. Prompted largely by a growing shortage of coal and oil, the six Common Market countries of Europe in March 1957 ratified the establishment of the European Atomic Energy Community (Euratom). Earlier, representatives from West Germany, France, and Italy had visited the United States and had discussed plans for a nuclear power program in Europe. Their report, "A Target for Euratom," noted the growing dependence of Europe on energy imports and the crisis that the threatened closing of the Suez Canal posed to obtaining oil from the Middle East. With rising oil prices and rising demand for electric power, they were optimistic about the advent of nuclear power as a means by which Europe could become less dependent on fossil fuels. They proposed that Euratom set a target of 15,000,000 kilowatts of installed nuclear power capacity to be built during the next 20 years.

It appeared that the conditions for nuclear power development in Europe were more favorable than those in the United States, and indeed that European experience might be a growing ground from which the United States could benefit.

These aspirations were realized, partly because of the availability of uranium and the discovery of new oil reserves. France, at the beginnings of a nuclear industry based on the dual-purpose graphite-moderated carbon dioxide cooled-reactor approach. Italy obtained uranium from both the United States and the United Kingdom and was the first to propose nuclear power plants of substantial size to be built under agreements between Euratom and the United States. However, the Euratom proposal was not fully realized. The Euratom proposal was by utility companies, and the availability of nuclear fuel, nuclear-liability insurance, together with high costs, discouraged the switch from fossil fuels.

By 1960, after Euratom's founding, two firm Euratom projects, and a third underway, provided altogether about 700,000 kilowatts of capacity. Obviously the earlier goal was not to be achieved, and there had been only a beginning in the development of an international market for nuclear-power equipment. During the same period, Japan, with its dependence on fuel imports, recognized the potential advantages of nuclear power and began to explore the possibility of purchasing both nuclear

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Founding of Euratom

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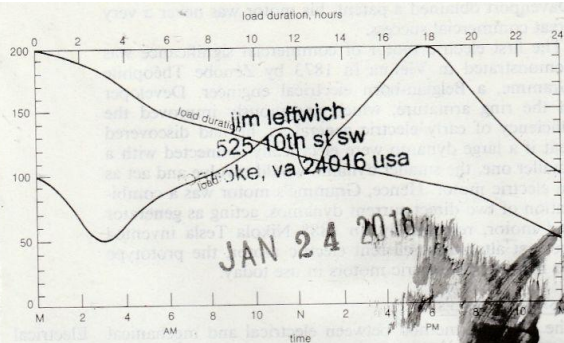


Figure 31: A smoothed version of the load curve of a power system, together with a load duration curve, indicating the number of hours each day that a particular load is exceeded.

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For most economical operation the base load portion should be supplied by the power stations the operating costs of which are lowest; for example, by run-of-river-flow-type hydroelectric stations, by the most efficient thermal power stations in the system, and, increasingly, by nuclear power stations. The peak load portion should be supplied by power stations the construction costs of which are low. Peak load is relatively high in kilowatts but relatively short in duration, so that total kilowatt-hours are not great. Peak load may be supplied by pumped-hydro stations, old thermal power stations, and gas-turbine stations.

Pumped hydro requires no fuel, but it is a net consumer of power, pumping the water to the storage reservoir.

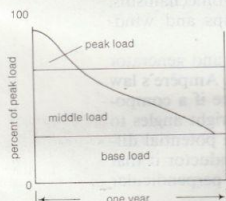


Figure 32: Typical load duration curves for a one-year period, showing how base load can be substantially increased (right) by using power during periods of low demand to operate a pumped storage system.

can be used for pumping, raising the level of base load (see Figure 32, right). The middle load is then supplied by older type thermal stations, and to accommodate starting and stopping of turbines once or twice a day, thermal stations are designed especially for middle-part use. Effective system planning requires estimates of future changes in the percentages for the three types of load.

INTERCONNECTION

Factors in planning the capacity of a system

To determine how much generating capacity should be built into a power system, a number of factors must be considered. Foremost is the maximum peak load on the system. Emergency conditions (e.g., a fault in a generating station or in transmission lines) must be considered, as well as scheduled outages for regular repair and maintenance. To provide the necessary reserve margin, a certain reserve peak power requirements, a certain reserve margin is required, sometimes expressed as 15 percent of the total peak power, and sometimes by the total of the two largest units in the system. Each system must be considered individually. The capacity of the largest generating unit is normally limited to 10 percent of the total system capacity.

The investment cost of generating capacity per kilowatt is usually lower as unit size increases, making the use of larger units economically beneficial. In a small system, however, such benefits cannot be realized. Larger systems can be assembled by interconnecting two or more smaller systems, thus enabling the use of a larger generator unit. Interconnections must be designed to give an adequate

power flow through interconnecting lines in an emergency. If help from neighbouring systems can be counted on in case of emergency, as can be realized by interconnection, reserve margins can be reduced, resulting in considerable economic benefits.

Interconnection also has economic advantages in day-to-day utility systems operations. Where system load conditions would normally require the operation of a generating station with a relatively low efficiency if the system were operating independently, interconnection can cut fuel costs by making use of more efficient generators from a neighbouring system. Another advantage of interconnection is the flexibility it allows in choosing sites for new generating stations; planning takes into consideration the interconnected systems as a whole, rather than a single independent system. Because of these advantages, electric-power systems have grown in size, and the result of interconnection between different systems is a more unified and even interconnections between countries.

Interconnection introduces many economic problems that must be solved in system operation and planning. Tie-line power flow, for example, in which power is permitted to neighbouring electric power systems, must be carefully controlled in the day-to-day operation of an interconnected system. Such power flow is normally determined on a contractual basis between the utilities concerned. The complexity of systems with interconnections at many points and at various voltages, however, creates difficult problems, for the solution of which the analog computer has been used since the 1930s. Such computers, known as calculating boards, network calculators, or network analyzers, have proved to be effective tools for solving power flow problems in interconnected system operation and planning. In the late 1960s they began to be replaced by digital computers, which have grown in size and flexibility. In many instances on-line computer control is used for the operation of large interconnected systems.

In addition to the normal operation of a power system by telephone and radio, a utility system requires a complex network for telemetering and control. Telemetering functions, extensive use of carrier telephony, and carrier telephony the use of high-frequency waves.

As a power system grows, the number of faults and disturbances increases proportionally. The capacity of all circuit breakers must be increased. A circuit breaker with insufficient interrupting capacity may explode when a system fault occurs. One way to alleviate the problem is to introduce series reactance, (a circuit component that impedes the flow of alternating current) into the system to reduce the fault current. Such reactance causes a voltage drop in the system during normal operation, however, and so has drawbacks. Connecting two systems with a dc linking device is also a possibility. No ac fault current flows through the dc linking device; thus fault current is restricted to one system.

Another problem with interconnected systems is the possibility of a large-scale blackout if there is a system fault. Power systems are designed so that a fault can be located almost instantly and the faulted section switched out in a very short time, thus allowing stable operation of the rest of the system, whatever the nature and location of the fault.

System design is usually on a single contingency basis, but in some cases two or more contingencies may occur simultaneously, perhaps leading to a widespread interruption of power. Weather disturbances may cause a large number of transmission lines, while an error on the part of a field operator, or failure of a protective apparatus (such as circuit breakers), cannot be excluded. Thus, widespread blackouts, such as that of November 1965 in the northeastern United States and southeastern Canada, can occur. Much can be learned from such large-scale power failures. First, reserve capacity, to be effective in an emergency, should be a spinning reserve; that is, the equipment must be in such a state that the output capacity can be used very soon after the disturbances. The time needed to produce electricity from a thermal station

Importance of reliable communications

Potential of large-scale power outages

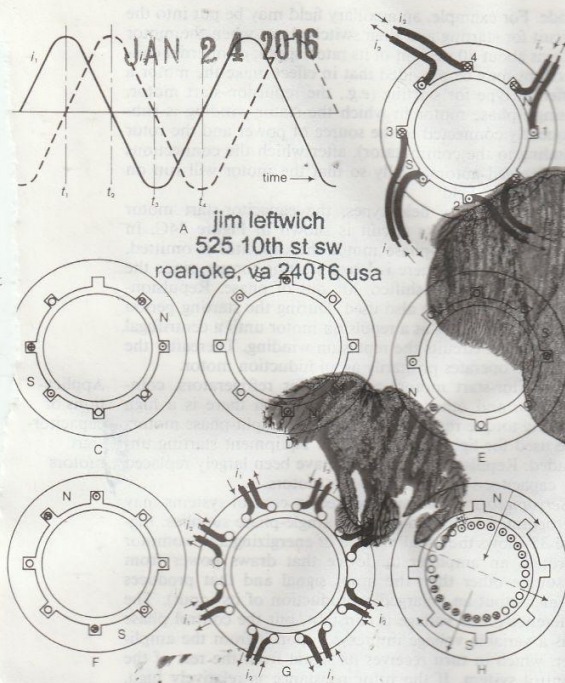


Figure 33 Induction motor fields and their interaction with rotor and stator conductors. \odot indicates that the flow of current is directed toward viewer, perpendicular to page; \otimes current is directed away from viewer (see text).

zero—just the same but whose phase relationship is 90° . Figure 33B shows schematically a stator on which four coils have been wound; coils 1 and 3 are so connected that if the current i_1 is in the direction shown, the polarity of the magnetic field at the stator surface will be north at the upper end and south at the lower coils. When the current is reversed, so that the polarities of the fields. Coils 2 and 4 are also connected so that a current i_2 produces a similar field. Figure 33A, at a given instant of time, i_1 is a maximum and i_2 is zero. Under these conditions the field system is as shown in Figure 33C. A quarter-period later, at t_2 , the current i_1 is zero, and i_2 has risen to a positive maximum. The resulting field conditions are now as shown in Figure 33D. At a third instant, t_3 , i_1 has advanced to a maximum, but in the negative sense, while i_2 has fallen back to zero from a positive maximum. The field situation is now that of Figure 33E. Finally, at t_4 , i_1 has again become zero and i_2 has reached a negative maximum, and Figure 33F shows the resulting fields. The north pole is found to travel around the periphery of the stator through one complete revolution while the current goes through two cycles. Hence a revolving field is produced and its speed depends solely upon the geometry of the coils and the frequency required for one cycle. If the hertz power supply is 60 revolutions will be made in one second, or 3,600 revolutions in one minute. The speed of the revolving field is known as the synchronous speed.

If each coil is made in size so that it supplies only half the stator surface (Figure 33G), the revolving field will travel only half as far for each cycle of the supply current, and the speed of the revolving field will be only 1,800 revolutions per minute for a 60-hertz supply. The coil arrangement of Figure 33B is said to produce a four-pole motor, since at any instant there is but one north and but one south pole. The arrangement of Figure 33G, on the other hand, will produce two north poles and two south poles at any instant and therefore is a four-pole stator. It is not uncommon to have as few as two or as many as 100 poles in a motor. The speed of the revolving

magnetic field in revolutions per minute in any motor is $120/f/p$, in which f is the frequency in hertz and p is the number of poles.

In a practical motor the stator will have more coils than indicated here, and these will be distributed around its periphery in equally spaced slots. This arrangement makes better use of the available space than does the concentrated-coil arrangement described above, but the result is still the same—a revolving field is established.

The induced voltage in the rotor is uniform in space around the periphery of the rotor, as shown in Figure 33H, and if the rotor is stationary and a two-pole revolving field is located in the position shown a voltage will be induced according to Faraday's law in a direction out of the page in the upper conductors and into the page in the lower conductors. If these conductors are now short-circuited through a slip ring—a device for making electrical connections between stationary and rotating contacts—current will flow in the same direction as the induced voltages. These currents in turn will produce their own magnetic field, and its direction will be shown by the dashed line in Figure 33H. The north pole of the rotor and south pole of the stator will attract each other, and a torque will be exerted on the rotor tending to turn it in the direction of the rotating field.

If the rotor is travelling at the same speed as the revolving field, there will be no induced voltage in the conductors, no current flow, and no torque. Hence, at synchronous speed the torque drops to zero. If the rotor travels faster than synchronous speed, the direction of the induced voltage and the current will be reversed, thus reversing the torque; the motor is now serving as an induction generator.

Construction features. The rotor and stator are built up of laminations of 0.25 percent silicon steel, from 0.014 to 0.025 inch (0.35 to 0.64 mm) thick. The laminations are separated by a thin insulating varnish to reduce the eddy-current losses in the laminations (eddy-current losses are proportional to the square of the thickness of the laminations). The slots are punched in the stator and rotor laminations.

The coils (usually the stator coils) are connected to the external energy source through slip rings and insulated and then inserted into the stator slots. The conductors may be placed directly into the slots and the insulation applied afterward. The former technique is presently used for motors rated for more than 600 volts or about 100 horsepower.

The conductors that form the secondary winding may be of three types: wound, squirrel-cage, or solid. To make the wound type, a two-phase winding having a phase difference of 90° degrees, or one quarter cycle, is placed in the stator (differing in phase by 90° degrees, or one quarter cycle, is placed in the stator and some of the terminals are brought out to the outside through brass or bronze rings on which the slip rings are mounted to provide an electrical connection to the external energy source.

The squirrel-cage winding may be either cast from aluminum or copper or built up from copper or brass bars welded to a common end ring. To cast such a winding, a stack of rotor laminations is inserted in a centrifugal casting machine and molten aluminum or copper is introduced. The result, after the metal solidifies, is an integrally cast rotor with longitudinal conductors and end rings. The squirrel-cage winding is generally used for standard production line motors in sizes under 100 horsepower. For larger motors the wound type is more common.

The example of the solid or continuous winding is the solid rotor motor, in which a nonferrous metal is rotated in a magnetic field to generate a current. The speed of rotation is proportional to its speed. A solid rotor motor can be made of any material that will also provide a good electrical connection. Continuous-winding rotors are used principally for servomotors.

Polyphase induction motors. The three-phase stator connection is by far the most common, because most industrial power distribution systems are three-phase. In this type of motor the revolving field is produced by three different currents whose phase relationships are 120° instead of the 90° shown in Figure 33A.

Both squirrel-cage and wound-rotor motors may be used in polyphase service; however, the latter are usually re-

Types of secondary windings

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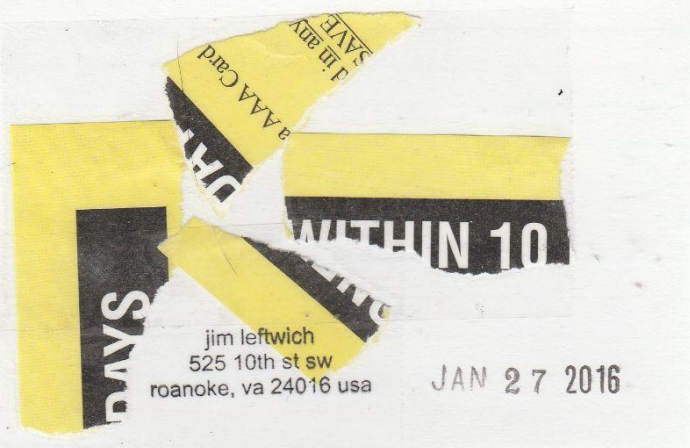


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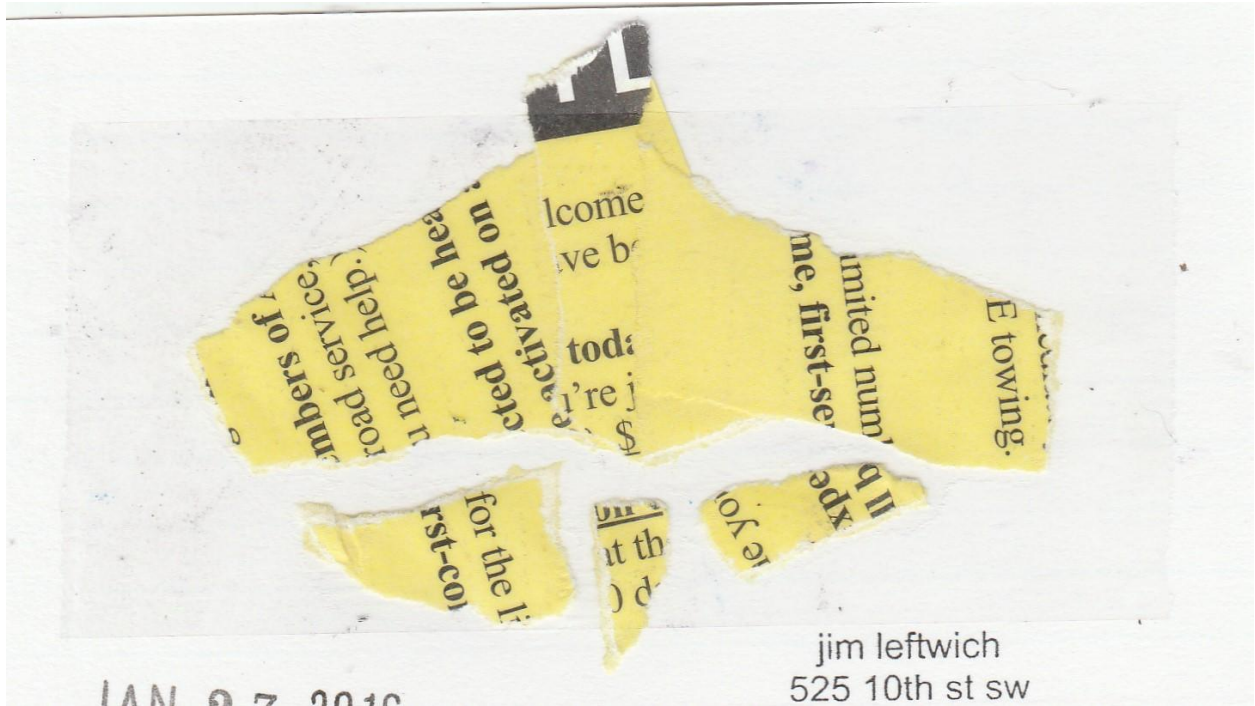
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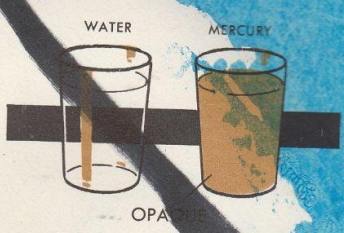


omnivorous \ŏ-m-ni-və-rəs\ *adj.*
 ZOOLOGY. Describing a animal that habitually eats both plant and animal foods.
The bear is an omnivorous animal.

ontogeny \an-taj-ə-nē\ *n.*
 BIOLOGY. All the phases in the development of an individual organism, see *phylogeny*.
The ONTOGENY of human embryos appears to recreate the evolutionary history of the animal kingdom.

oogenesis \ō-ə-jen-ē-sēs\ *n.*
 BIOLOGY. The process of egg formation, including the production of an ovum from special body cells by meiosis and mitosis and the preparation of the ovum for fertilization and development. Oogenesis is comparable with spermatogenesis in males.
During the Oogenesis of chicken eggs, considerable yolk is stored in the cytoplasm.

opaque \ō-pāk\ *adj.*
 Referring to the property of a substance that does not transmit light; also, referring to a substance that is impervious to other forms of radiation besides visible light.
Limestone, wood and iron are OPAQUE substances.



opalescence \ō-pə-'les-ən(t)s\ *n.*
 EARTH SCIENCE. The property of certain translucent minerals or gems that reflect an iridescent light or that have a milky iridescence.
The OPALESCENCE of some minerals makes them highly prized as gems.

open circuit \ō-pən 'sər-kət\ *n.*
 PHYSICS. A loop, or path, made of a good electrical conductor that would carry an electric current except for a break or gap in the conductor.
An OPEN CIRCUIT is the result when a light switch is turned off.

operant \'ap-ə-rənt\ *adj.*
 Referring to something that is functioning effectively; also, referring to something that it is possible to observe and to measure.

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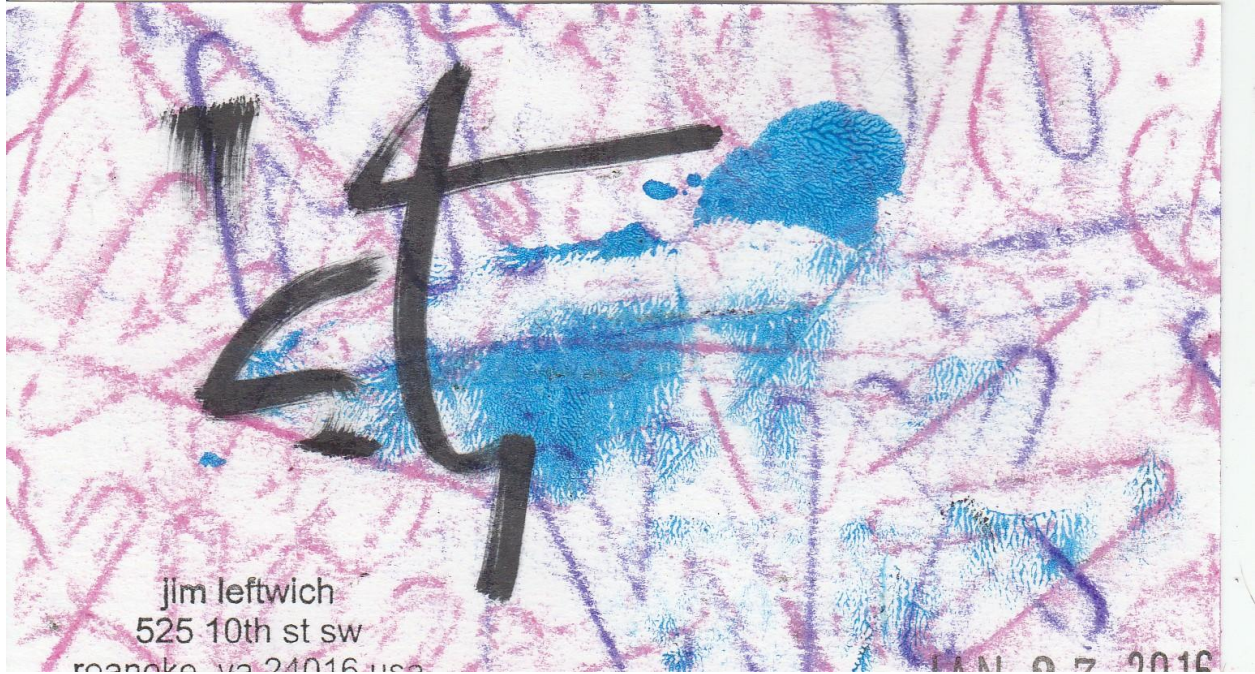


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